The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 5, 1889.

The Week.

PRESIDENT HARRISON'S first message to Congress has not been anticipated with feverish anxiety in any quarter. The best that can be said of the message itself is that it will not cause any commotion. Partly because it is not a disturbing document—and this is much in its favor—partly because the President has visibly lost standing with his own party during the nine months that he has been in office, there is no intense eagerness anywhere to read the message. The Philadelphia *Inquirer*, a Republican paper of the orthodox school, says "it is not easy to recall the existence of a like indifference within a great many years, and yet we have no doubt the message will be a very interesting and probably noteworthy document." Interesting it is, as the annual presentment of the nation's affairs must always be, and noteworthy also, but not exactly notable. It is timorous in its dealing with both the tariff and the silver question, but in this it undoubtedly typifies the state of mind of the Republican party on the whole. Foreign affairs occupy, as usual, the first pages of the message. There is very little here to dwell upon and nothing to excite alarm. Our relations with Great Britain occupy only a few lines, and these are satisfactory as far as they go. There is no reference to the Bering Sea question except a statement that the President has sought to protect the fur-seal from extermination. A new treaty of extradition has been negotiated, and will soon be laid before the Senate. The Samoan treaty with Germany and Great Britain is recommended to the approval of the Senate. It is recommended also that our ministers to Paraguay, Uruguay, Bolivia, Hayti, and the Hawaiian Islands be raised to the dignity of envoys extraordinary and ministers plenipotentiary—a suggestion based upon Pan-Americanism rather than upon business considerations.

The Treasury surplus is shown to be $57,000,000 for the past year, and probably $43,000,000 for the current year, and as much for the next year. This the President would have reduced by repealing the tobacco tax and the tax on alcohol used in the arts, and by additions to the free list of imported articles "that do not offer injurious competition to such domestic products as our home labor can supply." The recommendations regarding tariff "revision" are almost colorless, defending protection in a general way "for the products of our *farms* as well as our shops"—meaning wool, undoubtedly, but not venturing otherwise upon particulars. The President says a good word for silver, as indicating a kindly disposition towards that down-trodden metal, but he is not in favor of free coinage or of any addition to the present monthly rate of coinage. Whether he would favor Secretary Windom's plan of issuing certificates on deposits of silver bullion at its market value, he has not had time to make up his mind, but will recur to the subject later. In the way of spending money the President is more definite. He is in favor of a Dependent Pension Bill of the kind that President Cleveland vetoed. He recommends subsidies to steamships to South America, China, Japan, and "the important islands in both of the great oceans." He also favors the Blair Educational Bill, with the limitation that no appropriation be made covering more than one year, so that no Congress may tie the hands of a succeeding Congress—a qualification that might well be applied to steamship subsidies also. The only other recommendation of importance is one recommending the establishment of an intermediate court, inferior to the Supreme Court, to dispose of cases of a certain class, in order to relieve the existing pressure on the highest tribunal. This will meet general approval, for although the difficulties are considerable, the necessity is growing to be imperative.

On Monday, for the first time since December, 1874, a President greeted a Congress having in each branch a clear majority of his own party. When President Grant sent in his message fifteen years ago, the "tidal wave" had already swept over the country and insured the Democrats the control of the succeeding House of Representatives, and Hayes confronted an opposition majority in the lower branch throughout his term, and a Democratic Senate during the last two years. In 1880 the Republicans elected a majority of the Representatives, but the Senate was equally divided when Mahone voted with the Republicans and David Davis with the Democrats. By 1883 the Senate had become Republican, but the House was Democratic during the last two years of Arthur's incumbency. Cleveland had a Republican Senate to deal with throughout his term. It is consequently nearly half the lifetime of a generation since the last occurrence of such conditions as exist to-day, when the Executive, the Senate, and the House of Representatives are all controlled by the same party. It is altogether unlikely, however, that the new Congress will be fruitful of legislation. The Republican majority in the House is so narrow that, even with any possible changes in the rules, it will not be able to ride rough-shod over the minority. Revolutionary legislation, like the Federal Election Law scheme, cannot be enacted because the resources of the minority will always be sufficient to defeat it. Indeed, the only effect of the agitation of such projects will be to strengthen the growing popular sentiment against a party ready to champion them—a sentiment which, unless something now unexpected happens to change the set of the tide, will be reflected in the election of a Democratic House next November.

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The selection of Mr. Reed as the party candidate for Speaker by the Republican caucus was the best possible. Mr. Reed is a man of marked ability, with habits of thinking about public questions, and likely to take the conservative rather than the radical view of any such subject as the silver question, for example. His success is also a matter for congratulation as a proper rebuke to the new school of sectionalists who have been trying to beat him upon the ground that he represents the East, and that the West ought to have the place—not because it had a better man, but simply because it was the West, and had more votes than New England. The country has had so much trouble with the old sectional controversy between North and South that it is in no mood to have a new one started between the East and the West. Fortunately, there were enough Representatives from Western States who recognized the truth to put an effectual quietus upon the attempt.

The controversy between Mr. W. P. St. John and Mr. John Jay Knox, on the question whether the greenbacks are payable in gold alone, or in either gold or silver at the option of the Government, has attracted some attention in the press, although it is not the main point of difference raised at the Kansas City Bankers' Convention. The question is exactly the same as that raised a few years ago, whether Government bonds are payable in gold alone, or in gold and silver at the Government's option. Most commonly the word "coin" was used in the statutes passed during the war and the suspension of specie payments, when it was intended to distinguish metallic money from paper money; but since there was no full-weight legal-tender coin known to the commercial world except gold coin, the fair presumption is that gold coin was meant by Congress. This presumption is borne out by the fact that in one instance, when United States bonds were described, they were spoken of as gold-bearing bonds. This was the act of July 12, 1870, sec. 3, which provides

> "That upon deposit of any United States bonds bearing interest in *gold* with the Treasurer of the United States, . . . it shall be lawful for the Comptroller of the Currency to issue, to the association making the deposit, circulating notes, etc."

What were the United States bonds, payable in gold, existing in July, 1870? They were all the bonds outstanding. This legislative interpretation of the meaning of the word coin, which had been commonly employed in contradistinction to paper, shows that Congress was not acquainted with any other kind of coin, and did not have any other kind in its mind during the period under consideration. Of course, a lawyer's argument can be made showing that, since the silver dollar was a permissible coin under our statutes up to the Coinage Act of 1873, therefore it must be presumed that Congress always intended that bonds and greenbacks

should be payable in silver. But, as a matter of historical fact, Congress never had any such thought or intention, and this is proved, we think conclusively, by the fact that the only time it ever mentioned a metal it mentioned gold, and classed all of its bond obligations in that category.

The full official vote of the State of New York in the recent election is now at hand, and it makes many interesting disclosures. It shows that without a single exception the most fit candidates upon both party tickets ran ahead of their associates, and that if the election had been as close a one as that in which Mr. Cleveland was chosen to the Presidency, both parties would have had a share in the victory, each electing a part of its ticket. The total votes for candidates on the State ticket were as follows :

Democratic.			Republican.	
Rice	505,963	Sec. of State	Gilbert	485,587
Wemple.	500,242	Comptroller	Cook	489,050
Tabor...	499,377	..Att'y-Gen..	Varnum	489,666
Danforth	502,212	..Treasurer..	Hedges	488,296
Bogart ..	503,958	State Engin'r	Van Rensselaer	486,968
O'Brien..	503,404	Judge Ct. Ap.	Haight	487,592

The most desirable candidate upon either ticket was undoubtedly the Democratic nominee for Secretary of State, Mr. Frank Rice, and the most undesirable on either ticket were undoubtedly the Democratic nominees for Comptroller and Attorney-General, Messrs. Wemple and Tabor. The popular verdict upon these three nominees can be shown in two ways, first, by giving the plurality of each over his competitor, and, secondly, by showing how each ran, either ahead of or behind his ticket, and how his competitor ran. We give, in tabular form, the revelations which the official figures make upon these points :

Pluralities.		Dem. candidates behind their ticket.		Rep. candidates ahead of their ticket.	
Rice.....	20,376	Wemple ..	5,721	Cook.....	3,463
Wemple..	11,192	Tabor	6,586	Varnum.....	4,079
Tabor....	9,711	Danforth..	3,751	Hedges	2,701
Danforth .	13,916	Bogart	2,005	Van Renssel'r.	1,381
Bogart ...	16,990	O'Brien ...	2,559	Haight.....	2,005
O'Brien...	15,812				

It will be seen that Mr. Rice is in advance of all his associates, the one coming nearest to him in the size of both total vote and plurality being Mr. Bogart, the candidate for State Engineer, who was a nominee in every way deserving of the public confidence. The worst sufferer in public condemnation was Mr. Tabor, who ran so far behind Mr. Rice that he had less than half the latter's plurality. Mr. Wemple came next in the downward scale, and both men have reason to be thankful that they were running in an off-year. On the Republican ticket the candidate for Secretary of State had the poorest support, mainly because of the superior qualifications of his competitor, and partially because of his record as a prohibition advocate. The two of his associates who ran furthest ahead of him owed their large vote entirely to the unfitness of their competitors.

Judge D. M. Key, who was Postmaster-General under Hayes until appointed by him to the United States District Court, has written a letter to the *Times* of Chattanooga, Tenn., where he lives, discussing the subject of sectionalism, in the old sense of the word. He shows how the disappearance of slavery has removed the cause for it, and insists that the apparent sectionalism which still remains is in no sense a sectional difference when rightly understood, being due to the fact that in the North the negro is an unimportant factor in the population, while in some States of the South, and in many sections of other States, he is in a majority. Friction exists in the South, but does not in the North, simply because of the presence in one case and the absence in the other of the exciting cause. Judge Key shows that race prejudice is not at all a matter of politics, by pointing out that, although there were never many slaves in Eastern Tennessee, although its inhabitants were overwhelmingly in favor of the Union during the war, and although there are only two or three counties in that part of the State which give Democratic majorities, yet "if appeal be made to the rural Republicans to support the colored nominee of their party, they refuse, and will vote for a Confederate instead when they have no other choice."

If he had been familiar with the fact, Judge Key might have illustrated his argument that "race partialities and prejudices always have existed" where the conditions for them exist, by citing the recent election in Lawrence, Kansas, when seven out of eight white Republicans refused to vote for the excellent party candidate for county clerk simply because he was black. A similar illustration has even more recently been furnished in Springfield, Ohio. The regulations of the School Board provide that a normal class composed of the graduates of the high school who have attained an average of 85 per cent. or over, who desire to qualify themselves for teaching, may be formed each year under the direction of the Board, and that such normal students shall be assigned by the Superintendent or Board to the different schools as opportunities arise. A colored girl of Newark, O., went through this course, until she was properly qualified for appointment, but she was never assigned any place. Her father wrote the Superintendent, asking that she be given her rights. "I ask for her," he said, "no more privileges than what she has honestly earned, no more than what others who graduated in the same class with her are enjoying, and no more than some outside of that class have." The presentation of this letter caused a lively debate in the Board. One member said that the only question was that of color, and that the Board ought to assign the young woman to the Central Building, whereupon another said : "Miss Henderson, if her request is granted, will be entitled to and will be assigned to take a sick teacher's place, and this will cause an eruption in our schools. If she is so assigned, I'll withdraw my children, and so will the rest of you." After an acrimonious discussion, the motion to assign her to the Central Building was carried, but only by a vote of seven to five, and it is obvious that any attempt to carry it out may cause serious trouble.

The message of Gov. Richardson to the South Carolina Legislature, which met on Wednesday week, furnishes a fresh argument against the "Bill to Promote Mendicancy." The Governor devotes considerable space to the subject of the public schools, and what he says is full of encouragement, both for its matter and its spirit. He adopts unqualifiedly the traditional idea of New England, that "the public school is the principal training ground of the masses," that "the dictates of religion and philanthropy call for wise legislation in this field," and that "to these high motives is added the safety of the commonwealth." He urges upon the Legislature the most careful consideration of all measures bearing upon this subject, and commends the "salutary and progressive measure" passed by the House of Representatives at the last session, in "the appointment of a standing committee to guard and develop this supreme question." He declares his belief that the agents in the field, school officers and teachers, as a body, are more efficient and earnest in the discharge of duty than ever before, and he recommends the extension of the school year to a minimum of six months, which is the limit in the northern States of New England. From first to last the Governor's treatment of the subject is that of the executive of a self-reliant commonwealth, which spurns the humiliating idea of turning beggar and asking the authorities at Washington to educate her children for her.

A rather surprising proof of the growth of liberal ideas regarding Sunday among the clergy is afforded by a canvass of members of the profession in Portland in respect to a suggestion that the public library be opened on Sunday afternoons. The Rev. Dr. Asa Dalton and the Rev. Henry Blanchard favor the project; the Rev. Dr. A. K. P. Small thought somewhat favorably of it, though not prepared to give full assent to the idea; the Rev. N. T. Whitaker and the Rev. A. H. Wright opposed the plan, on the ground that it would lead to a demand for the opening of other places of public resort, and thus tend to secularize the day; but both Mr. Wright and the Rev. J. M. Lowden approved of a full and free discussion of the subject, to see what opinions would be developed thereby. It is not so very many years since every clergyman in Portland would have been horrified at the mere suggestion of opening the library on Sunday, and would have condemned even

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discussion of the question as tending to unsettle the views of the people.

People who tried to travel upon the elevated railways on Thursday, during the hours in which the crowds were moving to and from the foot-ball match, were able to get a faint idea of what we should have to experience daily were we to have a World's Fair here with our present transit facilities. The entire attendance upon the foot-ball match was only 25,000, and not all of these went over the elevated lines. A World's Fair would bring into our city from three to four times this number of daily visitors. The attendance at the Centennial Exhibition in 1876 averaged over 63,000 a day for the 159 days during which it was open. The attendance in 1892 would be much larger, and would, in all probability, average 100,000 a day. If the Fair were to be held on the site at present contemplated, this great body of visitors would have to be transported to and from it over existing lines of elevated and street railways, and it requires very little imagination to picture the discomforts in which the journey would have to be taken. People who are talking about the necessity of having the site within the reach of existing lines of transportation, should meditate upon this outlook.

The presentment of the Grand Jury upon the questions of subways and electric-lighting wires is an admirable statement both of the extent of the evils which we are suffering, and of the causes which have given rise to them. What they say about the manner in which our present laws permit any and every corporation to tear up our streets as often as they please, the lack of system in the laying of underground pipes, and the indifference which is shown to public convenience by the excavating forces—all this is a familiar tale; it has been told over and over again in the newspapers, and every citizen is familiar with it from personal observation; yet it is none the less a reflection upon our methods of self-government because of its familiarity. Why is it allowed to go on year after year? Simply because the people of the city consent to its continuance. When they insist upon a change for the better, they will get it. The Grand Jury set forth with equal truth and force the dangers which threaten us from the electric-lighting wires. They enumerate the most recent and startling accidents from them, declare that they are "due to the practice of stringing electric-light wires upon the same poles with telephone and telegraph wires," that they "cannot too strongly condemn this practice," and that not only is it a constant menace to the linemen, but a broken wire may at any moment be the means of sending "into any house or office a deadly current over the telephone wire." This has been said also in the press, but it comes with additional force when put forth in a formal court presentment and as the result of careful investigation by legal processes.

More attention has been given in Boston to slow-burning construction and to protection against fire in general than in any other American city. Mr. Edward Atkinson has reduced the whole subject to a science, and he has lowered the cost of insurance to the factories associated together in his Manufacturers' Mutual Company to a figure which would have been deemed impossible and fabulous a few years ago. All the principles which he has elaborated are as easily applied to stores as to factories—indeed, rather more so, since factories are exposed to more risk than stores, by reason of their greater use of steam engines, oil, chemicals, and fluffy material easily ignited. Yet within a stone's throw of Mr. Atkinson's office we saw, on Thanksgiving Day last week, an almost uncontrollable conflagration raging through whole blocks of alleged fire-proof buildings in the teeth of a driving rain-storm, destroying five or six millions of property, and checked at last only by the aid of fire apparatus summoned from a dozen places without the city limits. But for that pouring rain, which kept the roofs of distant buildings wet and extinguished the brands falling upon them, where would Boston be to-day? Not unlikely just where Chicago was on the 9th of October, 1871. The fire would have swept onward in the direction of the impelling wind until there was no more fuel in its path. It would have stopped only when the last combustible thing in its range was burned.

Austria-Hungary is seriously considering a thorough reform in her monetary affairs. In spite of the difficulty which both halves of the Empire experience in steering clear of annual deficits, it is hoped that, with the possible aid of an increase in the spirits tax, the budgets of the next few years will warrant the resumption of specie payments, the details of which are to be settled by a commission of high officials and financial experts. This commission will also be charged with the task of fixing upon a monetary standard as well as upon a new unit of value. That the gold standard will be adopted is considered certain, but as to the unit of value which will best suit the needs of the Empire, there is considerable diversity of opinion. The advocates of the mark unit point to the close relations existing between Austria-Hungary and the German Empire, while the adoption of the franc as a unit is urged by those who lay stress on the equally close relations between the monarchy and the countries of the Latin Union, particularly the Balkan States; and, finally, there are those who favor the adoption of a specifically Austrian unit, based on the actual gold value of the Austrian paper florin. This, again, raises the question, what is to become of the Austrian silver florin, which is at present worth about eighty-three kreuzers, or considerably less than the paper florin. The answer is, that, with the gold florin as a unit, the silver florin and its fractions would be retained as subsidiary coin and legal tender in small amounts.

The withdrawal of the Government notes now current coincidently with the resumption of specie payments would involve the issuing of a loan of at least 300,000,000 florins, to which Cisleithania would contribute her usual quota of 70 per cent., while Hungary would furnish the rest. The likelihood that Cisleithania could negotiate her share of the loan at more favorable terms than Hungary—say, at 3½ to 4 per cent. interest against Hungary's 4½ to 5 per cent.—is contemplated with perfect equanimity by the Vienna financiers, who in 1878 gave a very reluctant assent to the establishment of the Austro-Hungarian Bank, which introduced the political dualism of the Empire into its finances, and subjected the Vienna money market to all the fluctuations of the market of Buda-Pesth. Some apprehension is expressed that, in the event of the adoption of a gold standard, the hoarding propensities of certain classes of the population, unused to the sight of gold as a circulating medium, might be stimulated to such a degree as to bring about a serious stringency of money. Of course, whatever plan may finally be determined upon will depend for its execution upon the maintenance of the European peace, the tenure of which is considered by no means secure by cautious Austrian financiers. It is ominously remembered that the outbreak of the wars of 1859 and 1866 found Austria engaged in similar plans for the reconstruction of her finances.

A recent despatch from London states, on the authority of the *Times* correspondent at Brussels, usually a well-informed man, that the Pope is disposed to abandon the attempt to pacify Ireland which the British Government has long been urging on him, in view of the resolute resistance of the Irish clergy. This falls in with the stories which have been current for some time, and have gained much strength since the late Catholic Congress in Baltimore and the foundation of the Catholic University at Washington, that the spirit of insubordination towards the Papacy, on the part of the non-Italian element in the clergy, has been growing rapidly of late, and may find expression in some overt action when the time comes to elect a new Pope. The Irish and Germans and Poles are said, in other words, to be becoming very impatient of the monopoly of ecclesiastical rule held by the Italians, and to be disposed to resent it openly whenever the Pope and his advisers try to magnify their authority by extending it to the secular concerns of other countries. Some attempt has been made of late years to keep down this feeling by a more liberal distribution of Cardinals' hats among the outside barbarians, but as these Cardinals live far from Rome, they exert but little influence on Papal councils. The American and English Catholics, if not the Germans, are said to be in favor of some sort of great liberalization of Catholic theology, so as to keep hold of the sheep who are demoralized by science and democracy; but the necessity of this is naturally not as clear in the Vatican as in Baltimore or Chicago.

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MR. WINDOM AND THE BANKS.

At last the Secretary of the Treasury has taken a step which shows that he feels the importance of reducing the Treasury surplus by freer purchases of bonds. He has given six weeks' notice to the depositary banks, calling in 10 per cent. of their Government deposits where the Government account is an inactive one, and, in cases where the account is active, calling in 10 per cent. of the excess above the balance which the Treasury intends to keep. And he takes pains to make it plain to the banks that he is ready to buy from them, in whole or in part, the bonds which they have lodged with the Treasury as security for Government deposits. This 10 per cent. call is to be followed by other calls, with the expressed purpose of reducing the Government deposits in national banks from their present figure, some $47,000,000, to such a total as the Government business may really need, which will no doubt cut down the deposits at least one-half. All the money so withdrawn is to be used in the purchase of bonds. The working of Mr. Windom's circular will cause no disturbance in the money market, since the Treasury is ready to buy the bonds, and at prices considerably above the amount of the deposits for which they are held as security. In fact, the money market will gain stability from the change proposed, the Treasury buying and cancelling the bonds, in place of merely advancing money upon them.

It is represented in some quarters that this action of Mr. Windom, though delayed until he has been nine months in office, is taken in fulfilment of pledges given during the Presidential campaign of last year. If this view is held by the author of the circular just issued, he would probably be puzzled to explain why he did not issue the circular long since. It is, however, unnecessary to inquire into this question at present; it is of more importance to look into the general question of the Treasury deposits, viewed in their bearing on the very peculiar condition of the Treasury itself. The deposits were never anything but an expedient; they have been very useful to the business community at large, and they can be reduced in a manner to increase their usefulness further, which last may be taken as Mr. Windom's purpose in his present declaration of policy.

The Government of this country carries on its financial business as no other civilized Government does. Instead of depositing its revenues with one or more of the strongest banks in the country, and checking on the bank for its disbursements, it sweeps its receipts into its own vaults, making its disbursements afterwards through its own Sub-Treasuries. The system was calculated for a small business, and it has had to be worked on a gigantic scale; and what was easily borne when income and outgo differed little, became very burdensome when receipts largely exceeded expenditures. Congress saw this, even so far back as when the National-Bank Act was framed, and provided some relief by permitting a system of Treasury deposits secured by United States bonds. Such deposits could be made from any moneys in the Treasury, excepting the receipts from customs duties, a very large and important exception. Still, this section of the National-Bank Act gave to the Secretary of the Treasury a very useful power, and one which should have been used much earlier than it was, for it enabled him to relieve part of the stringency which was often caused by the absorption of money into the Treasury. It seems, however, that the Secretary was generally afraid to use this power, and deposits, as a rule, were made only in cases where they strictly facilitated the Treasury's own business. The matter was brought to the attention of Secretary Folger, in the month of October, 1882, and in his report of December of that year he discussed the question at some length, deciding to do nothing, and expressing the fear that deposits might not be returned when called for. The question then slumbered, so far as the public was concerned, until, under Mr. Cleveland's Administration, the Treasury in 1887 systematically increased its deposits in national banks, aiming to place what is called its "available balance," as far as possible, at the service of the trade of the country. The change was of great public utility: how great can only be surmised, but some idea can be formed by trying to imagine what the money-market would have been without this measure of relief.

The system of deposits has grown until the depositary banks are now reported as 266 in number. The deposits themselves are widely scattered, those in New York city being, we understand, a trifle less than six millions. Besides relieving borrowers of all legitimate descriptions, these deposits, being secured by pledge of United States bonds, have drawn together a large mass of the very securities for which the Treasury is the principal buyer. Some of the bonds are owned by the banks, and many of them are borrowed, belonging really to customers of the banks. In either case, their sale is only a question of practical judgment, and this practical judgment Mr. Windom evidently seeks to influence by his circular.

THE DECLINE OF NEW ENGLAND.

We printed last month an extremely interesting letter, from Judge Nott of Washington, throwing some light on the decline of the old stock of New England farmers. His explanation is, in brief, that farming has been ruined in New England, and the old New England society—something unique in its way—destroyed, by the offer of vast tracts of fertile land in the West by our Government for almost nothing to European peasants; and secondly, by the building up, by means of a high tariff, of a great manufacturing interest which has competed against the farmer in the labor market. The farmer was so fascinated by the picture which the high-tariff men drew for him of the benefits that would accrue to him from having "a factory at his door," to consume his produce, that he never thought of asking what the other effects would be. He has now found, after twenty years' experience, that "the factory at his door" does not consume his produce, while it does entice away from the land the laboring youth of both sexes, so that he can get nobody to help him in his fields, or his wife in her kitchen.

In one way or another not only has the New England farmer been ruined or driven from the soil, but the old New England society, in many ways one of the most interesting phenomena in history, has been completely broken up. No other such body of cultivators of the soil as the New England colonies were, down to our own day, has ever been seen. No other men who tilled the ground with their own hands have had such an acute and active intelligence, such intense preoccupation with religious and moral problems, such a keen sense of the superior importance of spiritual things, such reverence for learning, such familiarity with and appreciation of literature, and such capacity for government by discussion. Puritanism, as has often been said, missed its mark in England, but it came as near realizing its ideal as human nature would permit, on American soil. No student of politics or sociology will, in all probability, for ages to come, light on an experiment in all respects so interesting and so successful as Massachusetts and Connecticut were and continued to be down to the outbreak of the civil war. The war, working through the tariff and the railroads, has broken it up almost as thoroughly as it broke up its opposite, slave society, at the South.

The only important point in the catastrophe which Judge Nott does not attempt to explain, or even touch upon, is the equanimity, and even rejoicing, with which the New England farmers have witnessed the disappearance of the social edifice which they had passed two centuries in building up, and cemented with an enormous amount of prayer and self-abnegation. For more than a quarter of a century New Englanders have, through all their organs, in politics and in literature and oratory, eagerly supported the policy which was visibly and rapidly changing the character of their population and the structure of their society. The most ardent advocates and promoters of "the factory at your doors," with its swarm of foreign-born voters, have been New England men. They have seen it rapidly and surely converting Connecticut and Massachusetts into foreign and even Catholic States, ousting the natives of the Puritan stock from all real influence in the Government, and consigning to the lumber-room of history the old Puritan traditions of public spirit and public duty, and have seen it sending all their boys and girls flying into the cities and to the West, without a protest or even a word of complaint. In fact, at the dinners of the New England Society in this city, the favorite boast of the orators has been the rapidity with which New Englanders were leaving New England to leaven society, as they said, and carry on "improvements" in other places. The disappearance from the map of a community more remarkable, on the whole, for its civic virtues than any the world has seen since the days of ancient Greece, has wrung hardly a word of lamentation or re-

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gret from any of the recognized organs of New England opinion. The received notion about the matter has apparently been that as long as New England men can be pointed to in New York or at the West in places of responsibility in railroads, mines, factories, or stockbrokers' offices, nothing more need be said by way of apology or regret.

This is all the more surprising because the New Englanders who have emigrated have not sought to reproduce under strange skies the social ideals which reigned in their old homes. They have nowhere tried to found an imitation of their mother States, unless perhaps in the Western Reserve, the original peculiarities of which have, however, already disappeared. New Englanders have made their mark in various fields all over the country, but it is in no way a different mark from that made by emigrants from other States which did not inherit the Puritan tradition. They "make their pile" in much the same way as Virginians or Pennsylvanians, and spend it on much the same objects; hold substantially the same views of the ends of life. If they differ at all from other "live men" or "solid men" of the day, it is in possessing a more consuming energy, not in any superior appreciation of things invisible.

All this forces one on the supposition, to which Judge Nott makes no allusion, that some part at least of the decadence of New England has been due to the operation of causes which are driving the farming population into the cities in all the more highly civilized countries. The better educated and more energetic portion of the agricultural population is abandoning the farms in France and England as well as here. In fact, it seems impossible to keep any longer on the land in a state of content any but the real old peasant class of farmers, with no book-learning and no interests but those of their own calling—men and women whose lives are passed contentedly between toil and sleep, and on whom the attractions of city life have no influence. A population with as much mental activity, and the social ambition which comes of mental activity, as the New England farmers, was sure to be roused into uncontrollable restlessness by the advent of the railroads, the daily newspaper, the monthly magazines, and the visits of the lyceum lecturer. The old people might escape it, but no one who has seen anything of the New England youth of the last forty years can help doubting whether even prosperous farming would have kept them from rushing to the stores and factories of the great towns in search of society, of the theatre, of the picture-gallery and the public library, and the thousand and one suggestions of pleasant variety which the streets even of a country town offer to boys and girls who have been bred in the silence and seclusion of an "old homestead."

THE AFRICAN PROBLEM.

It is quite evident that the expulsion of Emin Bey from the Sudan, combined with Stanley's success in rescuing him, is going to make the African question a great subject of European attention during the next twenty-five years. The death of Gordon and the British repulse in the Sudan have given Egypt more than ever the character of a British dependency, or, indeed, possession, and Egypt is not safe so long as the Sudan is held by a hostile Power. Consequently, the best mode of pacifying the Sudan is now a constant subject of British preoccupation. Besides this, the missionary enthusiasm which down to Livingstone's day looked on the civilization of Africa as possible through the spread of Christianity, has since Livingstone's day given way to the commercial and colonizing enthusiasm, which holds that Africa must be regenerated by railroads, factories, and European trading settlements, to which the missions must be a sort of supplement or adjunct.

Accordingly Germany, England, Italy, and Portugal have plunged eagerly into the work of exploring Africa, not so much because it is a country easy to colonize as because it is now the only part of the world unoccupied by civilized men which European nations find it easy to get at. Germany is pushing out reconnoitring parties from Zanzibar; Portugal is extending her possessions inland from the Western coast; Italy has got a foothold in Abyssinia, and England has chartered an "East African Company," on the model of the East India Company, with full fighting as well as trading powers. Its mission will be, apparently, to push its way into the interior along the line of least resistance, trade where it can, fight where it must, found colonies, build forts, make roads, and lend a hand to friendly native chiefs wherever they need it. It is now proposed, if his services can be secured, to put Stanley at the head of this corporation, and the Germans will very probably try to secure the services of Emin Bey for some similar organization of their own. In short, there is to be a sort of attack all round, on what may be called "the anaconda plan," on the dark continent. It is to be pierced from several directions at once, and, if possible, opened up to civilization.

It is safe to say the civilized world has never before entered on a task so difficult. All the other great tracts of the earth's surface which the European nations have sought to penetrate and subdue—North and South America, Australia, India, and Central Asia—have had climates which the white man found, if not enjoyable, at least endurable. All have either had populations so feeble and barbarous as to be readily exterminated or reduced to submission, or have had political organizations the overthrow of which secured peace and obedience for the conqueror. Central Africa offers none of these advantages. The population is large and savage, and dwells in pestilential forests, and has neither thrones, principalities, nor powers competent to make treaties, surrender territory, or preserve order. All is night and chaos. No conqueror who enters that portion of Africa can at present hold more than the ground he camps on.

It is not, however, the absence of civilization or of strong tribal organization which constitutes the great difficulty in the way of the missionary or the colonist. If the invaders had only the peaceful natives to deal with, the problem would probably be easily solved. The power in Africa which drove Egypt out of the Sudan, which slew Gordon, which keeps the British shut up in Suakim and every now and then threatens them in Egypt, which bars Capt. Wissmann's and Dr. Peters's progress, has driven Emin out of his province, and keeps Stanley, on all his wonderful marches, in constant danger of destruction, is what we used to call in this country "the slave power"—that is, what may be called a vast semi-military brotherhood, composed of the owners and dealers in slaves brought from the interior to the northern and eastern coasts of the continent. The slaves who were brought to the Americas in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were generally captives taken by local chiefs in their tribal wars on the western coast. The slaves who are now sold in northern Africa and in Persia are captured by bands of filibusters composed either of Arabs or half-breeds, who come down from the north and lay waste the country, burn the villages, and carry off the inhabitants wholesale. Their raids are, in ferocity and destructiveness and plan of operation, very like those which the Turkomans, before the Russian conquests in Central Asia, used to organize against the Persians, under the name of "alamans," but they are carried out on a far larger scale and over a much wider area.

The beginnings of this frightful system are said to have been found in the ivory trade. The armed traders got into the way, when short of carriers, of seizing natives for the work of transportation by force. Then came the great success of the Mohammedan missionaries in making negro converts who considered themselves the superiors of the heathen, and entitled to use the sword of the Koran against unbelievers, hold them in slavery, and make up harems of their women. Gradually, little by little, out of these things has grown up an immense traffic which takes, it is estimated, 500,000 men, women, and children annually from Central Africa to supply the labor markets of Timbuctoo, of Morocco, of Tripoli, of Arabia, of Persia, and now of Khartum and Gondokoro. Commander Cameron, who had long personal acquaintance with the traffic, puts down the number actually sold annually at 500,000, but the number who perish on the march to the market is estimated at 50 per cent. of the total, so that the draft on the Central African population may be called one million annually. On the road, the traders every morning inspect their caravan, and kill, with a bar of iron, in order to save ammunition, every slave who shows signs of exhaustion, so as to save the sorghum on which they feed them, and in the desert the water. On certain of the caravan routes in the desert, in fact, it is said, the skeletons or scattered bones make it very easy to follow their track. The passage across the Red Sea in the Arab dhows which have to evade the British cruisers is as full of horrors as the old "middle passage" of the Atlantic traders, but it is happily very short, and the proportion of

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slaves landed in good condition is rather large.

The awful nature of the traffic and the difficulties it puts in the way of African civilization have often been exposed. Dr. Livingstone did it; so did Commander Cameron; so did Consul Johnson; so—though last, not least—did Cardinal Lavigerie and a score of others. The Conference sitting at Brussels has done it also. But no one has yet suggested a practicable remedy. The discouraging fact has indeed been brought to light that the traders actually follow in the track of the Christian missionaries, and choose the districts into which they have introduced some semblance of peace and industry as favorite theatres of their infernal operations. Several missionary stations have stood sieges from them or been destroyed by them. The line along which they operate, too, may be said to stretch across the continent, and they thrive in a climate where Europeans can barely keep alive.

Gordon said "there were but two serious means of putting a stop to the traffic. The first is to dry up the source of it by establishing tranquillity in the territories in which this chase after human game is carried on; the second is to close up the slave markets in Egypt, Turkey, and Persia." But how is either of these things to be accomplished? The English Parliamentary Blue Book published in 1888 shows that there is in Morocco a great market for Sudan negroes, and that at Messafoa in that country there is an immense establishment devoted to the preparation of black eunuchs for the harems. Consul Wood reports from Tripoli that he has seen come into the town of Bengazi alone 20,000 slaves in four years, or about 100,000 for the whole of Tripoli. The Governor of the province of Fezzan was said to receive about two dollars per head for every slave who entered his jurisdiction. They are also beyond question smuggled into Turkey. That more or less of the trade goes on in Egypt may be inferred from the existence at Cairo of a "Home for Freed Women Slaves," under the patronage of the Queen, which had very recently four hundred inmates. The truth is, that slavery is so deeply imbedded in Oriental traditions, manners, and religion, that the demand will never be extirpated as long as the supply exists; and to stop the supply we must either civilize Africa or rule it in some such rough-and-ready-fashion, from the Atlantic Ocean to the Red Sea, that every slave-dealer who crosses the line will have a well-founded fear that the gibbet or the firing party may await him.

HIGHER EDUCATION FOR WOMEN IN GERMANY.—II.

At the close of 1887 a number of Berlin women drew up a petition to the Prussian House of Representatives and Minister of Education, praying, first, that women be given a larger share in the teaching of girls in the public high schools, and especially that the "ethical" or character-building subjects, German and religion, be put into the hands of women teachers; second, that institutions be established by the State for the training of women teachers competent to do this work. The grounds of this petition are ably set forth in an accompanying memorial written by Fräulein Lange. The contention of the petitioners is that the girls' schools are at present organized upon a wrong principle; that women no less than men should be educated for their own sake, with reference to the fullest possible development of the faculties natural to them; that the ideal to be kept in view by the schools, therefore, should be *womanhood* of the highest and completest type. To the attainment of this end, the memorial argues, girls must receive a large part of their instruction from women. Instead of being confined, as now, to the instruction of the lower classes (years) in handiwork and calisthenics, women teachers should have charge of the most important part of the course, leaving to men at best those subjects which involve little more than the giving of information.

The memorial admits that women teachers of the kind desired are not now to be had in any considerable numbers in Germany, and argues thence the need of providing them. It does not ask for or favor the admission of women to the universities, but advocates rather the erection of public colleges more or less similar to Girton and Newnham in England; such colleges to offer a three years' course of the highest scientific character, having at the beginning a severe standard of admission, and at the end a State examination vouching for the same grade of attainment and carrying with it the same rights as the present State examination for men. The latter part of the memorial is devoted to showing that women are mentally and physically equal to the severe course of study planned for them, and that their womanliness will gain instead of losing under the strain.

The petition and the memorial are both ably written documents, and present a very cogent argument, but they fell short of convincing the Prussian authorities. After a lapse of eight months, Minister von Gossler replied that he saw no ground for proceeding in the direction suggested. The petitioners had exaggerated the evils of the existing system; women were already extensively employed as teachers, and the best positions were already open to those who would qualify themselves. The State was making generous provision for the training of teachers in the seminaries attached to the girls' schools. The idea that women should teach religion was preposterous, since such an idea would seem to deny the utility of the present confirmation-instruction, which everybody knows to be a blessed institution. The erection of colleges for women was to be looked on with disfavor, since, apart from the question of expense, the young women in such establishments would become estranged from family life. Their health would also be sure to suffer under the regimen proposed. Finally, many poor but respectable young women, such as now find employment suited to their abilities in the girls' schools, would be unable to pay the expense of the proposed course and would thus be driven out of the business of teaching.

Thus the petition accomplished nothing directly in the way of influencing legislation, for the Prussian House of Representatives shelved the whole subject upon learning the attitude of the Ministry. Indirectly, however, much has been effected, and the reformers have reason to look upon their cause as prosperous. For, in the first place, their views are now fairly before the public, and are being, or have lately been, much discussed. A few prominent journals and several influential men espoused the cause of the petitioners, at least to the extent of favoring the *idea* involved. Others, and these the majority, opposed the movement, but in so doing they were at least compelled to tell why; so that the whole question, in its three familiar stages—first, Have women the brain power? second, Will it not injure their health? and third, Who wants a blue-stocking for a wife?—is now seething in a multitude of minds, and slowly evolving a general feeling that something must be done. For of course the reformers have not failed to point out the vacuity of Von Gossler's argument, or to make skilful use of the stinging and inevasible retort that all the insurmountable difficulties foreseen in Government circles have of late been easily surmounted by other nations.

There is evidence that this particular shaft, after first making public opinion somewhat restless, is now pricking through the skin of Prussian officialism; for we observe that the Government has lately sent an envoy to England to inquire into the methods and workings of the English colleges for women. More important still, there has just been established, under the name of "Fortbildungskurse für Lehrerinnen," in connection with the Victoria Lyceum at Berlin, a line of instruction which, so far as it goes, is substantially what the reformers have been asking for. Hitherto the Victoria Lyceum—a brief account of the institution will be found in the *Nation* of January 14, 1886—has confined itself to providing lecture-courses in which the results of scientific research are presented in somewhat popular form and rather easy doses. The new courses aim higher. They are to be systematic and obligatory, to extend over three years, to combine lectures with seminary work, and to terminate in a State examination with a diploma for those who pass. The ideal and the methods of the instruction, which is supported in part by State subsidy, are to be essentially those of the universities. At present, to be sure, the new courses are confined to history and German; but we may doubtless assume that if experience shows a demand for the extension of the work, the extension will be made, and the Lyceum will develop into a university for women.

Finally, we have to chronicle another very recent movement in the same general direction, namely, the new "Realkurse für Frauen," just established under the auspices of the Wissenschaftlicher Centralverein at Berlin. These courses are to provide advanced instruction, open to graduates of the public high schools for girls, in mathematics, physics, chemistry, political economy, German, Latin, French, and English. Here the aim is less distinctly academic than in case of the Lyceum courses just spoken of. The "Realkurse" are intended to give women such knowledge as will make them more independent under the peculiar conditions of modern life. We have before us the excellent inaugural address delivered on the 10th of October last by Fräulein Lange, one of whose hearers was her Imperial Majesty the Empress Friedrich, long illustrious for her exertions on behalf of German women. The programme of the "Realkurse" is thus far a modest one, but with such support as it has no one can foresee what may come of the movement. A foot-note to the address just mentioned indicates that the number of students registered is small but rapidly increasing.

In short, it looks as if the question of higher education for women in Germany were entering upon the road to solution. The initial steps we have described have been taken, to be sure, only in Berlin, and are in themselves perhaps not very imposing. But the reform has now at

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any rate a foothold. The principle that a woman no less than a man has a right to make the best of herself, and is entitled to at least as much help from the State, has been recognized, and the future is in the hands of the women themselves. If they avail themselves eagerly, in considerable numbers, of the slender opportunity now tentatively offered them, further provision will, of course, be made for their needs; and as Berlin and Prussia go, so the rest of Germany will go.

One shrinks from giving free rein to the imagination in a matter of this kind when there are mountains of inveterate prejudice to be removed and a mint of money to be expended. Still, it is not hard to defend the thesis that the education of girls is, in a sociological point of view, even more important than that of boys; and so one cannot help wondering what would happen if this principle were to be recognized in Germany, and put into practice with the energy and thoroughness which that country has long displayed the education of men, and is now in the habit of bringing to bear upon all matters vitally affecting the public welfare. We might then look forward to a race of German women essentially different from those of the present day. Will they be less vigorous of body? Science should take care of that. Will they be less attractive to men? Nature looks out for that. Will they be real competitors of German men in the pursuit of knowledge and the application of new knowledge to life? Probably not. Of one thing, however, we are very sure, and that is that they will be helped and not hindered by whatever accurate knowledge they may possess, in the carrying out of the pretty domestic programme which Schiller lays down for them in "Würde der Frauen":

> "Nähren sie wachsam das ewige Feuer
> Schöner Gefühle mit heiliger Hand."

No doubt whatever that this is a woman's noblest vocation. And the more intelligent she is, the better she can fulfil it.

THE "CULTURKAMPF" IN BAVARIA.

MUNICH, November 13, 1889.

PRUSSIA has made its peace with Rome. If Bismarck has not precisely been to Canossa, he has at least got as far on the way as Venice, and has managed as cleverly as did his predecessors in the days of Barbarossa to patch up a *modus vivendi* with Rome, without coming to extremities either way. This apparent settlement of the religious question by the highest powers in Germany has perhaps diverted attention from another field of religious-political controversy where the same question has never been suffered to rest, and where it has just risen to the surface of affairs with sudden and unusual distinctness. Bavaria is mainly a Roman Catholic country. It is governed by a family which has throughout its history distinguished itself by its fidelity to Rome. In the great religious war of the seventeenth century, the house of Wittelsbach stood at the very head of the Catholic party, and stamped upon Bavaria the character of a truly Catholic land, which it has never lost to this day. But on the other hand this same house of Wittelsbach has always been, especially since it gained the royal title by the grace of Napoleon I., very jealous of its rights as against all comers. The spirit of the old Emperor Ludwig of Bavaria has never, in spite of the weaknesses and sins of his descendants, quite died out, and it is coming to the fore in these days. It was largely under the impulse of that spirit that the electors of Germany, assembled in 1338 at the ancient Königsstuhl at Rense, declared that whoever should be lawfully chosen by themselves should, *without reference to Rome*, be the true and lawful Roman King and Emperor.

It was a great lesson in historic continuity to listen to the debates in the Bavarian Landtag on the 6th, 7th, and 8th of this month, and to see how, with only a change of words, precisely the same problem is before the German people to-day which faced them, under Ludwig the Bavarian in the fourteenth, and even under Henry the Salian in the eleventh century. The present form of the problem in Bavaria, divested of its complications, is something like this. The present Prime Minister, Von Lutz, the Bavarian Bismarck, is a Protestant, and probably the best-hated man in the land. He holds his place by virtue of his great ability, his devotion to the interests of the Government, and the sincere admiration of the liberal elements of the population. The late King Louis II. cared little for the details of administration—was, in fact, during the last years of his reign, undoubtedly incapable of that kind of activity. His brother, the present King, has been for many years a hopeless lunatic. Their uncle, the present Prince Regent Luitpold, is an old man, a worthy person, so far as any one knows, devoted to hunting, and apparently guided very much by the good monarchical feeling that he is, after all, only a regent, and therefore in a sense excluded from original action in fundamental questions. His eldest son, Ludwig, a man in the prime of life, with a great family of children, will succeed his father as regent, and, if he outlives the mad King (which, according to published accounts of his Majesty's excellent physical condition, seems doubtful), will succeed to the throne.

Under all these circumstances, the policy of the Government is distinctly to keep things as they are, to take no decided original action, but to maintain steadily the rights of the throne as it interprets them, and to hand them over undiminished to a new king, whenever, according to the Bavarian Constitution, such a one shall come into power. On the other hand, the Roman party, keen as it ever was to seize upon the weak points in its enemy's position, is using these circumstances of uncertainty in the Government to insist upon certain concessions which it could expect with less confidence from a king strong in an undoubted right, and looking forward to a long period of personal influence upon affairs.

The immediate subject of the recent debates was a proposition presented by seventy-nine members of the party of the Centre, asking the Landtag to declare that the royal approval, the "Placetum Regium" of the Bavarian Constitution, did not apply to questions of faith. This proposition has at first hearing a very harmless sound. To American ears it seems almost like a declaration of religious liberty: "The King shall have nothing to say as to what his subjects may believe"; and, in fact, the Roman party even went to the length of declaring itself the champion of religious freedom as against State oppression. But the real pith of the matter lies deeper. The idea of State support for religion is still deeply rooted in the minds of European peoples of all parties. But State support and State recognition go together. The State must define *what* religions it will support; it must have some principle by which to reach such a definition. In other words, it must, necessarily, sit as judge over purely doctrinal questions, whenever, in the course of events, it is called upon to recognize a new religious body. Such a crisis has been impending in Bavaria ever since the Vatican council of 1870. The doctrine of Papal infallibility has never been accepted by a considerable fraction of the Catholic Church. The disaffected portion began the organization known as the "Old-Catholics," and, ever since, the chief anxiety of the Ultramontane party has been lest this new organization should gain in Bavaria, as it did in Prussia, State recognition, therewith State support, and thereby cease to be a "sect" and become a "church" in the same sense in which the Roman Catholic, the Protestant, and the Greek churches now exist side by side, "recognized" and "supported" by the State.

The danger of such recognition has not increased of late years. The Old-Catholic party has not shown itself capable of supplying the rallying-point for moderate reform which was expected of it. But the Ultramontane party has not been satisfied. It has wanted a formal declaration that the Government shall have nothing to say in questions of faith. It has emphasized in every way the distinction between questions of religious administration and those which involve purely matters of belief, and it has brought forward its present proposition in the hope of getting a formula which shall be capable of indefinite extension in the future.

But the Old-Catholic question is not the real one involved. As Minister Lutz very sharply said, "The Government is not going to give privileges to the Old-Catholics until they ask for them." The real question is the great fundamental one of the relation between Church and State in Bavaria. The debates of last week, and still more the comments of papers throughout Germany, show this beyond all doubt. In his reply to the proposition of the Centre, Minister Lutz went, with Bismarckian directness, straight to the point. He passed in review the action of the Government in related matters during the past centuries of Bavarian history, and maintained, on the basis of Constitution and Concordat alike, that the whole record pointed to the right of the State to control its own affairs, religious as well as secular. He finally charged the movers of the proposition with infidelity to their oaths of office as representatives of the Bavarian people. This accusation naturally called forth a storm of opposition. Members threw off all disguise, and fell into the trap which the Minister had laid for them. His own directness brought similar directness in reply. A stormy scene, quite unusual in German legislative bodies, took place, and culminated in a declaration by the Ultramontane representative, Daller, for himself and his partisans, that they did not feel themselves bound by their oaths of office *in the sense in which the Ministry had interpreted them*. This declaration has since been going the rounds of the German Liberal press as the evident expression of the jesuitical reasoning which underlies the whole matter of the relation of the Roman Catholic subject to *any* State: he takes his oath of allegiance *with a reservation*.

It is a fortunate thing for the Liberal party everywhere that the Ultramontanes of Bavaria have been forced to such a distinct utterance. It must open the eyes of thoughtful men to the fact that the Roman Church has not changed its views since the time of Hildebrand as to the superior claims of the only saving Church over all other human relations. The American citizen may gain the same warning, and will profit by it. He has the same problem to meet, only on different lines.

I was especially interested in one remark of Minister Lutz on the fundamental question of State support. He said in substance:

"There are different ways in which to meet this difficulty. One way would be to withdraw

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the support of the State from all religious bodies, and then the matter might be left to them. This way, however, is in Bavaria out of the question. The Government stands on the basis of the Bavarian Constitution, and accordingly must provide for religious support."

The American observer learns by such a declaration that this State control, which in America would be tyranny, is here the present condition of what passes in Europe for liberty. If the nations of Europe are to advance constitutionally from their present level of religious toleration to the higher level of religious liberty, it will have to be through this intermediate action of the State. To one, however, who sees how this State control works to lame and cripple all activity in other directions, the outlook is not cheering. In Bavaria, at all events, the Government has nothing to fear from overliberal tendencies. The proposition of the Centre passed the lower house of the Landtag by a majority of three. Its defeat in the upper house is believed to be certain, but it remains as documentary evidence of what the only true representatives of the Bavarian people think about their relation to Church and State, and it is hailed with the utmost jubilation by the Roman press everywhere as a sign of that ultimate victory which is to reward those who patiently wait until the world comes round to them.

There can be little doubt that the move of the Ultramontane party at this time is a direct personal attack upon the Prime Minister. He himself felt it, and replied to it as such. Under a different system of parliamentary government, the passage of this vote would have brought with it the immediate resignation of the Ministry. Foreseeing the outcome of the discussion, Herr von Lutz emphasized, with great distinctness, the difference between the Bavarian and, for instance, the English system. He reminded his opponents that so far as he, personally, was concerned, he was not responsible to Parliament or to the people, but to the King, and that, so long as it should please the King or his representative to approve his action, so long he proposed to keep on as he had been doing.

The question in Bavaria is thus frankly stated and put before the people in such a form that it cannot be misunderstood. The chances are that the Ultramontane party will be satisfied for the present with its majority of three, and will let the matter slide until another year. Meanwhile, there are enough other points of controversy, as, for example, the still pending question of the approval by the Pope of the new Archbishop of Munich, Freysing, to keep the Ministry in a constant attitude of opposition to the extreme claims of the Vatican. Never, since the days of the Falk laws in Prussia in 1873–75, has this question of Roman control over the religious affairs of Europe been so clearly before the people. The ultimate solution in Europe, as in America, must be the separation of Church and State, but that can never come until, by some great awakening, the whole theory of the paternal government is abandoned, and no one who watches the direction of affairs either from above or from below can deceive himself with the idea that Germany is advancing along this line. On the contrary, both in the struggle of Socialism and in the resistance of the monarchy, it is strengthening the theory of the "strong hand" which shall, if it only be strong enough, make all things well. E. E.

FRENCH DIPLOMACY FROM THE ARCHIVES.

PARIS, November 15, 1889.

THERE is no branch of literature which has undergone in our time a greater change than history. Historical studies have assumed almost a scientific character; we no longer put up with vague and sententious generalities, we will have facts, texts, documents. This reform was first introduced in Germany, but the modern French school is as severe, and more severe, than the most difficult German professors in Berlin. There is much to be said about the great change which has been made in the direction and in the method of historical studies; even texts, letters, and written documents may deceive us and conceal the truth. Human life is too short to allow us too close a study of the past; and it will soon be almost impossible to study history, as the documents published every day are so numerous that it would take several lives to go through them. At the same time, we must confess that when we have once adopted the modern method, we cannot be content with the vague accounts of the older writers. We have become so critical that we hardly dare to pass any judgments on the past, as we feel that there is always something hidden from us; we must be satisfied with a part of a truth, but we cannot bear what is not the exact truth.

I have before me several large volumes of historical documents, which are published under the general title of "Collection of the Instructions given to the Ambassadors and Ministers of France from the Treaty of Westphalia to the French Revolution." This publication is made under the direction of the Diplomatic Archives Committee of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. These archives have been for twenty years more accessible than in the past: any person who wishes to consult them has only to write a letter to the Minister and to say what subject he intends to study. The Minister consults the Archives Committee on the subject, and gives his permission if the report of the Committee is favorable. As the archives, however, are now so completely open, the Commission has thought it its duty not to leave to the first comer the initiative in publications which, from their dimensions and their object, seem to depend chiefly on the initiative of the Government. On the other hand, the Foreign Office does not think it opportune or necessary to take the entire charge or responsibility of these vast compilations of instructions and despatches. The work has, therefore, been confided to persons known by their capacity, and to responsible editors, who consent to do their work only under the auspices and the superintendence of the Commission.

In accordance with this programme, the Minister has authorized the publication of the instructions given to our representatives abroad from the Treaty of Westphalia to the French Revolution, and has given a subvention to this publication. The habit of our Government has always been, when a new Minister was sent to a foreign court, to give him an extensive account of the anterior relations of France with this court, of the questions which were at the time in discussion, and to draw up for him a plan of diplomatic operations. These instructions may be compared to a proof before the letter: they represent all the effort of our diplomacy in its stage of preparation; they cast their shadow on coming events; they are the invisible thread which unites a number of political events; they are a sort of perpetual commentary on our national history, and show at the same time both what we have done and what we have wished to do.

The diplomatic archives have only been very regularly kept since Cardinal Richelieu, and our diplomatic relations have only kept a perfectly regular course since the Treaty of Westphalia. It is for this reason that the new publication only begins at that date; there are obvious reasons why it should end with the year 1789. Before this date there were instructions of two sorts—those which were given in view of some particular negotiation, such as a treaty of peace, and those which had a general character, and gave a résumé of the regular relations between France and all the States of Europe. The collection made under the direction of the Archives comprises only this second class of general instructions.

The old clerks of our Ministry of Foreign Affairs were obscure but noteworthy men. They spent all their lifetime in the shade; they were never changed, and knew all the intricacies of our negotiations. Many of their memoirs are to be ranked among the best models of historical study. Their names are forgotten, but they played as important a part as the negotiators who received their lessons from them. It is chiefly to them that we owe the continuity of our foreign policy before the great Revolution.

The first volume of the collection gives the history of the relations between France and Austria. The rivalry between these two States fills our history, and the struggle against the powerful house of Austria became a necessary condition of the territorial formation of France. Charles V. aspired to universal monarchy, his possessions surrounded France on all sides. France had to look everywhere for allies, and she found some in Germany itself. The Treaty of Westphalia gave to France the three bishoprics of Metz, Toul, Verdun, the landgraviates of Upper and Lower Alsace, the prefecture of Haguenau in Lower Alsace; it conferred more rights on the German princes, and gave them the right of free alliances. France became the guarantor of these rights, and this guarantee became the foundation of her policy.

"These German alliances of France," says M. Sorel, who has written an introduction to this first volume, "are a very subtle and delicate matter"—so subtle that in the instructions given in 1815 to the Duke of Richelieu we read:

"The Duc de Richelieu must not forget that, with regard to the Princes of the Empire in general, it would be dangerous to show too much haste in defence of their interests. Still imbued as they are with the prejudices with which the Court of Vienna has known how to inspire them at all times, they would be inclined to consider such a hasty disposition a result of the King's desire to take a principal part in the interior affairs of the Empire, and to foment division in order to promote his own interests."

After the death of Charles VI., France entered into the coalition against Maria Theresa, with results not foreseen by her, the creation of a new Power as dangerous to France as Austria ever had been. Prussia took and kept Silesia, and the genius of her king soon gave her a place in Europe which she had never had before. The instructions given to Stainville in 1756 say:

"His Majesty used, in 1733, the King of Sardinia, and in 1741 the King of Prussia, as Cardinal Richelieu had previously used the crown of Sweden and several Princes of the Empire; with this difference, however, that the Swedes, ill-paid by France, nevertheless remained faithful to her, while by making the Kings of Sardinia and of Prussia too powerful, we have only made of these two Princes ungrateful rivals—a great and important lesson, which we ought to take to heart, so as to govern each of these

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monarchs by fear and hope, rather than by augmentations of territory."

Prussia left the French alliance and signed a treaty with England, which was at war with us; France turned towards Maria Theresa and made peace with her. "If ever an event took place which could justly astonish the world," say the instructions to the Comte de Choiseul (1759), "it was the union of the King with the Empress-Queen. The result was not fortunate for France; she received no support from Austria against England on the Continent; she neglected her maritime struggle with England in order to help Austria against Prussia," and in the end Frederick II. kept his Silesian conquest, France lost Canada, Louisiana, and India. After prodigious efforts made by France, she found herself much diminished. The Austrian alliance had become, however, the new basis of our foreign policy, and it remained so, with some alterations, till the French Revolution.

The mere chronological list of our envoys to Vienna from 1660 to 1790 will be interesting: President Colbert, Chevalier de Grémonville, Marquis de Vitry, Marquis de Sedeville, Comte de Cheverny, Comte de la Vauguyon, Comte de Lusignan, Marquis de Villars, Comte du Luc, M. Mandat (chargé d'affaires), M. du Bourg (chargé d'affaires), Duc de Richelieu, M. de Bussy (chargé d'affaires), Marquis de Mirepoix, M. Blondel (chargé d'affaires), Marquis d'Hautefort, Marquis d'Aubeterre, Comte d'Estrées, Comte de Stainville, Comte de Choiseul, Comte de Châtelet, Marquis de Durfort, M. Durand (minister plenipotentiary), Prince de Rohan, Baron de Breteuil, Marquis de Noailles.

The second volume of the collection relates to Sweden, and its publication has been confided to M. Jeffroy, who has written a good introduction to the volume. He shows in it how laborious French diplomacy was during the last century. By his close alliance with Sweden, Louis XIV. had, so to speak, surrounded the Baltic and northern Germany, balanced in the north England and Holland, restrained Russia and Prussia. Louis XV. and Louis XVI. continued the same work. More than once France had recommended a Scandinavian union, a union which might have had very happy results. But this union of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway was hindered by national jealousies, as well as by the violent temper of such kings as Charles X., Gustavus, and Charles XII.

Portugal forms the subject of volume iii., a somewhat distant field for our diplomacy, but still an interesting one to us, as, by a singular fortune, France was directly mixed up with the events which prepared the political independence of Portugal in the seventeenth century, as well as with those which ended in the revival of this independence in the nineteenth century. M. de Cain de Saint-Aymour has edited this volume, and written its introduction.

Then come, in the order of their publication, Poland, in two volumes, with an introduction and notes by M. Farges; Rome (the first part, extending to 1687), with an introduction by M. Hanotaux; Bavaria, Palatinate, Deux-Ponts, with an introduction and notes by M. André Lebon.

Correspondence.

THE ANCESTRY OF WASHINGTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following very important contribution towards the history of the Washington family has just been received from a well-known English antiquary, in friendly response to the suggestion made by Mr. Whitmore, that the aid of our English friends might confidently be looked for.

Mr. F. A. Blaydes, the editor of the *Bedfordshire Notes and Queries*, writes under date of November 8:

"Some fifteen years ago, when I was first bitten with the mania for searching registers, I have a faint recollection of finding the name Washington of frequent occurrence on some register that I went through. It was somewhere not far from Luton, but whether Toddington, Chalgrove, or Hockliffe, I cannot now say for certain. However, I forward you a few data, bearing on your work, one being a Washington marriage, which I hope will be of use.

NOTES FROM LUTON, CO. BEDS. REGISTER.

1663 Dec. 22. WASHINGTON, Mary, d. of Mr. Lawrence and Mary, bapt. [Bishop's Transcripts.]

1668 Nov. 20. FREEMAN, Mrs. Mary, d. of Mr. *Thomas* [*sic*] and Mistress Hester, bapt. [Parish Register.]

1675 Jan. 14. FREEMAN, John, son of Mr. *John* [*sic*] and Esther, bapt. [Bishop's Transcripts.]

1660 Jan. 26. WASHINGTON — JONES. Lawrence, *gen.* and Mrs. Mary, married. [Bishop's Transcripts.]

"The will of Edmund Jones of Luton, gent., dated 8 Mar., 1682 (buried in the parish church of Luton, 19 May, 1683), mentions grand-child Mary Washington, to whom he bequeaths 40 shillings. Proved at Bedford 24 June, 1689."

[It will be noted that three of these entries are from the Bishop's Transcripts of the parish records. Mr. Freeman is termed *Thomas* in the first—an undoubted error, whether made in the "Transcript" or by Mr. Blaydes in copying.]

Here we have made known to us the maiden name and parentage of the first wife of Lawrence Washington of Virginia, the dates of their marriage and of the baptism of their daughter Mary, to whom, it will be remembered, her father gave all his property in England by his last will and testament. And it should not be forgotten that it was to Edmund Jones that letters of administration on Lawrence Washington's goods in England were granted.

Two or three years ago I myself went to Luton to examine the parish registers, but, though I reached the place early in the forenoon, it was not until afternoon that I was able to get access to them. I looked rapidly over the entries down to the year 1658, inclusive, and, finding nothing, hurried back to London. At that time, I suppose, everybody believed that Lawrence Washington was married and in Virginia in 1658 and onward. It now seems doubtful when he actually settled there. I have made no thorough examination of the Feet of Fines later than those of the year 1657. They should be searched for ten years further at least. Now that we know the Christian name of his wife, any conveyance of land in or about Tring, made by Lawrence and Mary Washington, would be good evidence to prove that Lawrence of Tring and Lawrence of Luton and Virginia were one and the same. Knowing, too, the place and date of the marriage, it might be worth the while to hunt for the marriage license, with the hope to learn thence his place of nativity. If there are extant in Luton any borough or guild records, we might get help from them. If young Lawrence Washington was apprenticed to any tradesman in Luton, the book of apprenticeships in which his indenture was enrolled would undoubtedly settle the question of his parentage and place of nativity.

I would call attention to the fact that Lawrence Washington of Virginia is now shown to have married his first wife in 1660, which helps us form an opinion as to his age. Lawrence of Tring must then have been twenty-five years old, which answers very well. Let me also call renewed attention to the interesting and important part played in my story by Mr. John Freeman of Luton, whom we find having children baptized, borne by his wife Hester. It was this John Freeman of Luton whom Mrs. Elizabeth Fitzherbert, aunt of Lawrence Washington of Tring, appointed executor of her will and trustee of her real estate in Tring and Middleton Stony. His wife Hester, we have found, was a daughter of William Roades of Middle Claydon, and so a cousin of Lawrence Washington of Tring. Hither to this parish of Luton, from somewhere in England, came a young Lawrence Washington to marry his first wife, in 1660. Can any one doubt that it was from Tring that he came? If this is granted, my whole case must be allowed; for Lawrence of Luton and Lawrence of Virginia were surely one and the same, while Lawrence of Tring was clearly the son of a clergyman of the same names, and that clergyman can have been no other than the Fellow of Brasenose, whose pedigree was known. HENRY F. WATERS.

[At the risk of seeming superfluous, I venture to point out that these extracts prove the identity of Lawrence Washington of Luton, whose first wife was Mary Jones, with the emigrant to Virginia. (1.) Because Lawrence died in Virginia and his will was proved January 6, 1677. Administration was granted in May, 1677, to Edmund Jones, principal creditor, on estate of Lawrence Washington formerly of Luton, County Beds., deceased in Virginia. No one can doubt that these entries refer to the only known emigrant.

(2.) Edmund Jones is clearly the father-in-law of Lawrence, and mentions his grandchild Mary Washington. Lawrence Washington of Virginia, in his will, gives all his property in England to his daughter Mary and the heirs of her body, and, failing them, to her half-brother and sister, children of his second wife. This devise, moreover, makes it a moral certainty that Mary was an only child by the first wife, agreeing exactly with what the Luton records show.

(3.) It has been *supposed* that Lawrence came to Virginia with his brother John, about the year 1657. But this rests solely upon Gen. George Washington's statement that such was the family tradition. But George was descended from John, the brother of Lawrence, and, even at that time, a century after the emigration, the two families seem to have drifted apart. There are many Washingtons in Virginia not descended from John, who were not clearly traced even to Lawrence.

Now, Mr. Brock's citations from the Virginia Land Registry show grants to John Washington as early as 1661, in connection with Thomas Pope, but the earliest entry to Lawrence is September 27, 1667, jointly with Robert Richards. *Is there any evidence that Lawrence was here before 1667?*

If Lawrence married Mary Jones at Luton in 1660, and had a daughter Mary in December, 1663, and no other child, is it not a fair inference that the mother died soon after, and that Lawrence then turned his steps towards his brother John, already well established in Virginia, and became resident there about the date of his purchase of land in Stafford county as above cited? W. H. W.]

UNSCIENTIFIC POLITICAL THINKING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An incidental remark of the reviewer of Bagehot's writings, in your issue of Novem-

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ber 21, touches what is to my mind a matter of so fundamental importance as to entitle it to attention on independent grounds. There is in this country, your reviewer suggests, "more political thinking than there has been for a long time, but it is to a great extent bad thinking. It is loose and vague and highly uncritical." There are probably few thinking men who have not had this fact forced upon their attention. It is perhaps at present an opportune time to bring the matter to the consideration of the public, from the fact that no Presidential election is very imminent; for it is undeniable that the heat of a political conflict has proved anything but a favorable atmosphere for sanity and lucidity of thinking.

The vice of much current political thought—and this is a characteristic belonging to no one party as a peculiar possession—is that it takes no account of anything but the present moment, present conditions, present aspects or tendencies. Certainly the historic sense would admonish a trained student that conditions and tendencies in the past have shown constant development rather than rigidity and fixity. It would consequently seem to be only a natural inference that any hypothesis or theory should look well into the past and into the future as well as the present.

Another vice of the thinking which is so prevalent is an almost grotesquely uncritical spirit shown in the weight of authority accorded to the varying would-be expounders of political and economic principles. It is not so much that the uninstructed popular voice classes all authorities as on an equal basis and appealing with equal weight to the choice of the citizen. It is rather that when the citizen exercises a choice, it is in many cases made on so childishly irrational a basis. The loudest voices, the claims oftenest reiterated, standing "headlines" by which "vain repetitions" are made to do the duty of argument, and even the claims accompanied with loudest abuse of the opposite side—such as these are, in too many cases, treated by those who use them as if assured of their effectiveness as political weapons. Moreover, in this those who use them are probably in most instances not deceived as to their effect.

Perhaps if there is any one field in which the average citizen has thus far been more than elsewhere at the mercy of those who have counted on his failure to exercise his critical judgment and logical processes, it is that of statistics. It is certainly an encouraging fact that in all the economic and political disputation of the past decade, appeal has been so much more generally made to statistical tables and figures. It is at least an evidence that mere assertion, unaccompanied by shadow of proof, has not quite the force which it once had, and, to this extent, it may be regarded as indicating one stage at least of progress. It is, after all, however, only an intermediate stage so long as so great lack of intelligence prevails in the use of the statistics. This, however, is not strange. The science of statistics is thus far in its infancy, and this even among the class of men who have most widely explored the field of statistics. It is coming to be understood that for avoiding the perils possible to an unconsidered use of statistics, rigidly logical methods and carefully disciplined mental processes are indispensable. The diffusion of these conditions will come in time.

Yet all other faulty methods in statistical discussion have perhaps not been so productive of misleading political doctrine as the constant tendency on the part of a great multitude of men to approach the statistics with a specific preconceived theory to prove from them, rather than simply to interrogate them as to what they may be found to prove. They deliberately interpose that "subjective element" between themselves and the clear perception of the scientific truth, the separation of which Dr. von Sybel, in his admirable words on the method of historical criticism, has declared to be indispensable, "to secure the true picture of the thing as it is."

The writer is no pessimist, and has no fear for the ultimate fate of all such questions at the hands of the people, believing as he does that complete enlightenment in this matter is only a question of time. Mr. Lincoln's words are worthy of being kept constantly in mind, that even if "it is possible to fool a part of the people all the time, and all the people a part of the time," that at least is the limit. We may, I think, take a lesson from the growth of public enlightenment in this country, in another field, that of æsthetic development. To quote from a recent writer, a quarter of a century ago "the only object of a book or periodical, in America at least, was to serve as a medium for the distribution of ideas. The artistic side was ignored. Illustrations were considered good enough unless they were so bad as to startle the beholder"; but, little by little, the average American, he shows us, has "arrived at that state in which the contemplation of an ugly object" is no longer tolerable.

So, we can hardly doubt, in its slow and gradual, but steady development, will be the progressive advance of the average American to the appreciation of sound theories of government, and the result must, no doubt, in the one case as in the other, be reached by steadily familiarizing the public with sound methods.

CIVIS.

PROVIDENCE, R. I.

PROF. JOHNSTON'S WRITINGS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The appearance of Prof. Johnston's article in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' on the History of the United States as a separate book, tempts me to raise a question which I have often had in mind. It is, whether some arrangement would not be possible by which the articles contributed by him to Lalor's 'Cyclopædia,' on the same subject, could be combined and condensed into a connected account and published as a Constitutional History of the United States?

The work of making such a connected account from the articles would not be, I think, a difficult one, and could be performed by any well furnished and careful graduate student, perhaps under some responsible supervision. The result would be a book, in its sound and level-headed opinions and criticisms, far above the plane of Von Holst or anything else that we have on the whole constitutional period. As it is, these articles of Prof. Johnston's have by no means their legitimate influence. A very large proportion of the people who would gladly use them do not know of their existence, and (by no means least of all) there is sad need of such a book in the college work of the country.

PRESTON.

THE EAST IN THE WEST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: From time to time the columns of the *Nation* have been open to correspondents upon the topic of foreign (usually English) ignorance of America. It is all very amusing and strange, but not quite so amusing and strange as the frequent exhibition of ignorance by enlightened people of the social conditions that obtain in the "West." It may be premised that the "West" is a rather large place. In what follows I shall not attempt to embrace under that name more than the Mississippi Valley. Somewhat as a foreigner uses "America," when he really means a half-dozen large cities in the United States, so Eastern people use the word "West" when they really mean a half-dozen cities on the further side of the Alleghenies.

A case in point is contained in a recent issue of the *Nation* under the caption, "A Good Farm for Nothing." The writer takes occasion to institute a comparison between the rural New England of fifty or a hundred years ago and the rural West of to-day. If the opinion there expressed were confined to one individual, or to one community, it could afford to be overlooked; but there is reason for believing that it is the opinion of a majority of the intelligent and reminiscent East. Contempt for Western civilization is so frequently expressed in Eastern magazines and newspapers that it is a matter of surprise to find that an appreciative writer, like Charles Dudley Warner, can tell the truth at all. It is to mildly protest against this false conception—and, incidentally, to defend the Western hog—that this is written.

Let Judge Nott's words be recalled:

"What we do know is, first, that the old nursery of good and great and useful men is, under existing causes, being destroyed. . . . Second, that there is no rural New England in the West rearing a posterity worthy of the old stock; that the youth who was starved out of his birthplace . . . has not been replaced there by a wiser or a better man, and that in his new habitat material wealth has been his only gain."

This would be sad if it were entirely true. It is quite in the vein of Matthew Arnold's characterization of all "Americans" as "too beastly prosperous." The climax is reached in the assertion that the Western-bound youth departs with this (in italics) sounding in his ears: "Go West, young man, go West, to make money to buy land to grow corn to fat hogs to make more money to buy more land to grow more corn to fat more hogs." This would be desperately sad if it were not one of those rhetorical half-truths which have all the attributes of ubiquity and immortality peculiar to fallen angels. This, too, reminds one of Arnold, and one expects something about the materialism and vulgarity of a civilization which submits to such names as Kankakee, Kalamazoo, and Oshkosh. The reviewer of Miss Alcott's life, in the same number of the *Nation* with the article under discussion, could not forbear quoting a passage in which the latter city appears to disadvantage.

It needs to be stated that these towns are not the centres of civilization in the West, but that they will compare favorably with manufacturing New England towns of 10,000 to 25,000 people. For 500 miles westward from Kankakee and 300 south and 300 east, however, do we find somewhat of the rural West. In this immense domain luxuriates the hog-raising farmer. It is doubtful if in all this region there is a farm without its hogs. Many of the farmers have grown rich in the process by repeating it again and again. If so, do they differ from any other successful class? Food and raiment are the primal wants of the race. The New Englander for several generations has been meeting the second want. Shall he gibe at the man who provides the first and go unrebuked? The American hog, as Western breeding has perfected it, is quite as much a blessing to humanity as the great inventions—the steam engine, the cotton gin, the telegraph. He is the most economical machine yet produced for

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making cheap and nutritious food. A Western Poland-China makes the most possible hog on the least possible food in the shortest possible space of time. Making clothes, or literature, or interpreting laws may be cleaner undertakings than making hogs, but it may be questioned if the latter is not just as honorable and just as necessary for the welfare of society as the former; and by as much as food is more than raiment, by so much is the Western farmer to be esteemed above the Eastern manufacturer.

If we take three of the foremost hog-growing States, Ohio, Illinois, and Iowa, the statistics of the last census indicate that the traits that were most admirable in New England rural life—intelligence and piety, plain living and high thinking—are as characteristic of their inhabitants as they were of those of New England fifty years ago. The indications are that for every abandoned church and school back yonder, two at least have sprung up out here. Actual life in one of these States leads me to believe that *in a multitude of ways the old life is lived over again under slightly altered conditions.* Are these people lacking in intelligence? What, in addition to a public-school system that puts a school-house every two miles along the highways, mean the 35 colleges and universities in Ohio, with 350 instructors and 6,000 students; 15 in Illinois, with 300 instructors and 5,000 students; 17 in Iowa, with 200 instructors and 3,000 students? It is readily conceded that the name is sometimes too large for the institutions, and that they are petty affairs compared with the magnificent schools of the New England of to-day. Ah! but we are talking now of the rural New England of the past. The same divine fire that planted Harvard and Yale and Dartmouth was present at the founding of these—it was New England's "starved-out" youth, who had gone West to "grow hogs," who founded them. And even the least of them offer facilities quite equal to those which produced a Webster. I apprehend that Oberlin, and Wabash, and Beloit, and Iowa Colleges are to-day better equipped, exercise a wider influence, and graduate quite as intelligent classes as did Williams in the days of Dr. Hopkins's Presidency.

These institutions are types of the New England colleges of our fathers' and grandfathers' time. In them do we find the same fervid piety, the same number of earnest young men studying for the ministry (often as high as 50 per cent.), and the same simplicity of life. As yet, college dissipation and extravagance have not been made a fine art. It is in the States I have named that is found the transplanted New England race with its fire unabated. Here it is that white houses with green blinds, maple trees before the door, red barns, and churches everywhere (6,700 in Illinois, 3,300 in Iowa), proclaim the presence of the old race and the old stock. Here it is that a posterity is being reared worthy of their ancestors. If the youth was "starved out" of his birthplace, it was a kindly fate, for here, indeed, he is "doing better," and gaining much in addition to his material success. "He makes money to buy land to grow corn to fat hogs," in order that he may surround himself and family with the comforts of a home which the scanty soil and bleak hillsides we wot of too often denied to his forefather—a home in which books and pictures and music are not strangers. He builds railroads to help him market his product, to bring himself and his within reach of the quickening influences of the daily mail and the telegraph, and to facilitate intercourse with his fellowmen. Isolation, the curse of farm life, is to be banished as far as may be.

The "West" needs not to hide her head because of any lack of richness in human products. Let Ohio's long and great list of foremost actors in the late civil war attest their patriotism. The social conditions which produced a Lincoln need to yield nothing to a people who can think of Webster as the statesman ideal. Webster? An orator indeed, but whose manhood was not high, not pure, not noble.

I have a belief that the race that has left the New England hills still lives, is still as great as in its old home, and that the Mississippi Valley is to-day a nursery of good and useful men, many of them destined to be great. I have a fancy that comfort and peace and plenty for all—the dreams of every idealist from Plato to Bellamy, the things for which humanity through many weary centuries has toiled with but indifferent results—has been attained in no land, no clime, with greater success than in the "great West."

THEODORE JESSUP.

BALDWIN, WIS., November 27, 1889.

Notes.

A NEW volume of poems by Robert Browning, no fewer than thirty, will be published this month by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., under the title, 'Asolando: Fancies and Facts.' They will shortly issue also 'Portraits of Friends,' by Principal Shairp.

Mr. John Bigelow's edition of Franklin's Autobiography has been put into the form of the Knickerbocker Nuggets series of the Messrs. Putnam. This pocket size is, on the whole, the most becoming to it, and its pretty dress likewise; and that an index much above the average has been provided is a still further recommendation.

The bound volume of *Harper's Young People* for 1889 does not obviously differ from its predecessors in any respect. Several of the continued stories in it have already been republished as books. One observes the customary number of articles which seem not calculated for youthful readers, but for their elders, like the paper on the vocal training of children, as well as many which imply a pretty mature understanding and age; so that we think the editor might well try the experiment of insinuating some advice about the cultivation of the mind through reading and study—but this field is quite neglected. On the other hand, we think that with articles on "Boys Who Became Famous," and portraits of living heroines, champions, prodigies, and even of correspondents, quite enough is done to foster a precocious love of notoriety.

The monthly magazine *Babyhood* (New York: Babyhood Publishing Company) concluded last month its fifth volume and year, and remains a solid comfort for young mothers—a sort of mothers' exchange—under capable medical and literary direction. Not a few of the contributed papers, like "Botany for the Little Ones," or "Children of the Bush," "The Musical Education," or even "The Dressing of Simple Wounds," might have appeared in *Harper's Young People* or *St. Nicholas.*

Mr. Philip G. Hubert, jr., has compiled a rather sumptuous 'Nursery Lesson Book: A Guide for Mothers in Teaching Young Children' (Putnams). It is designed to stimulate curiosity and attention, and to facilitate learning to read, draw, and cipher. The suggestions are sensible if not original. A number of nursery songs, with music, from a well-known English collection, are inserted.

Josephine Pollard's 'Plays and Games for Little Folks' (McLoughlin Bros.) is in the main an excellent collection, very prettily printed and adorned, and falls into three divisions of "Sports of all Sorts," "Fireside Fun," and "Singing Games" (with the music, of course). "To place wine under a hat and to drink it without touching the hat," is no doubt practicable, as shown, but it is a dangerous experiment for children. A glass of water would serve the purpose. And in a book of games for children, "men and women sit alternately in a circle" where we should look for boys and girls.

More elegant as a book, and both like and different in its contents, is 'Kate Greenaway's Book of Games,' illustrated in colors in her usual dainty fashion. Tops, hoops, ball, marbles, kites, and dolls, battledore and shuttlecock, swings, soap-bubbles, are lightly touched upon.

Raphael Tuck & Sons send us a number of their holiday publications in color, of which we can only specify two delicate little calendars, one "from Pekin" with Chinese *motifs*, by J. Pauline Sunter, and one, not inferior, by Harriett M. Bennett; two books of verse, 'Tiny Toddlers,' and 'Golden Days and Silver Eves,' in which good designs and mediocre mingle on an even footing; and 'Character Sketches from Charles Dickens,' without subtlety or elevation.

Mr. Ruskin has, we believe, decided objections to any American reprint of his works. So far as this wish is disregarded, we presume he would be less annoyed by a fine than by a shabby presentation, and Messrs. A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have gone far by way of propitiation in their well-proportioned and well-printed edition of the 'Sesame and Lilies.'

The second volume or series of the *Bookworm* (London: Elliot Stock; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son) continues to be a scrap-book in which hardly anything exceeds half-a-dozen pages in length, and the unexpected may be looked for at every turn of the leaf. Superficialities about Thomas Bewick, Albert Dürer, Rowlandson, Bernard Quaritch, the Elzevirs, Swiftiana, French bookbinding, Goldsmith's 'Citizen of the World,' John Newbery, hornbooks, Drayton's 'Polyolbion,' Bailey's 'Dictionary,' the Greek chorus and Parthenon, literary anachronisms, etc., mingle with all sorts of paragraphs relating to books or literature. Cuts old and new abound, and the typography leaves nothing to be desired.

The critical apparatus for the study of the Japanese language receives an important addition in the publication, by Messrs. Trübner & Co. of London, and Kelly & Walsh of Yokohama, of Mr. J. H. Gubbins's 'Dictionary of Chinese-Japanese Words,' Part I., pp. 325, A.–J. It is so clearly arranged and so well printed that even the beginner can use it easily. The work is especially strong in the vocabulary that has come into vogue since the introduction of Occidental ideas.

In 'Les Artistes littéraires: Études sur le XIXe siècle' (Paris: C. Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern), M. Maurice Spronck considers the writings of a group of recent French authors whom he declares to be not popular, and preëminently artistic in their effort after perfection of form. Those of us who have read what M. Brunetière, M. Jules Lemaitre, and M. Émile Faguet, one or another, have said about Gautier, Baudelaire, the Goncourts, Flaubert, Banville, and Leconte de Lisle, may be interested in what can be adduced in their behalf by an admirer. But although M. Spronck comes to praise, his eulogy is never very hearty. Apparently he likes these literary artists more in his heart than in his head he approves of them. His book is not without interest.

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It has always been a matter of wonder to those Americans who studied French literature, and who were curious as to the attitude of French critics, that so little was known in France about Hawthorne, while Poe was so widely praised. Poe's position was due chiefly to the praise of his disciple Baudelaire, while Hawthorne has lacked even a good translator. M. Paul Masson now announces that he proposes to publish, in the *Revue Bleue*, translations of all Hawthorne's short stories, the 'Twice-Told Tales,' and the 'Mosses from an Old Manse'; and in the number for November 16 he begins the series with "La Fiancée du Shaker."

In one of the most manly letters we have ever seen, M. Francisque Sarcey announces his final decision not to apply for admission to the French Academy. Certain of his friends among the immortal forty had urged him to come forward as a candidate for the chair now made vacant by the death of Émile Augier. One of the first duties of a new Academician being to pronounce the eulogy of his predecessor, no more fit choice could be made than that of the foremost dramatic critic of France and of our time. M. Sarcey's reason for declining an honor he highly appreciates is that even a candidature would possibly, indeed probably, give grounds for doubting the absolute disinterestedness of his dramatic criticisms. There are a dozen dramatic authors in the Academy. M. Sarcey declares that his influence is due wholly to the belief that he always speaks his mind freely, and he is unwilling to do anything which might cast a doubt on his perfect independence. He is proud of his profession, and his letter, which is not without its pathos, declares that he hopes to have on his tomb only this inscription: "SARCEY: Professeur et Journaliste."

Volume xliii of section 2 of Ersch and Gruber's 'Encyklopädie' begins with "Leibeigenschaft" and ends with "Ligatur." The longest articles are on Leibnitz (10 pp.), Lessing (10), Leipzig (11), battles of Leipzig (14). The Byzantine Emperors and the Popes named Leo require 18 pages, while 42 are needed for the German emperors and other kings and princes Leopold. Leopardi, Leicester, Leroux, Lesage, and many other biographical notices are treated more briefly. There are some omissions to be noted, mostly in English and American subjects, which are a weak spot in the most learned German books; such as Jacob Leisler, John Leland, all the Leslies, Sir Roger L'Estrange, John Leyden, etc. Although most of these are not very important, one expects to find them at least mentioned in what is undoubtedly the most extensive encyclopædia ever published outside of China.

If he receive sufficient support, Mr. R. H. Tilley, Newport, R. I., will issue in January a quarterly *New England Notes and Queries*, a medium of intercommunication for historical and genealogical students.

The first volume of a serial bearing the title of *Harvard Studies in Classical Philology*, edited by a committee of the classical instructors of Harvard University, will be published early this month. It is the expectation that one volume, containing about 200 octavo pages, will be issued each year. The contributors will be, for the most part, instructors in the University or graduates from it, but contributions of other scholars will not be absolutely excluded. Any correspondence respecting contributions should be addressed to Prof. J. B. Greenough, Prof. J. W. White, or Prof. F. D. Allen, Cambridge, Mass. Subscriptions—one dollar, four marks, or five francs a volume—may be sent to Otto Harrassowitz, Leipzig, Germany, or to Ginn & Co., 57 and 59 Ludgate Hill, London, E. C., and Boston, New York, and Chicago.

The *Arena* is a new monthly magazine begun in Boston with the current month. Poverty is, to judge from the first number, to form a large part of the burden of its discussions; but the theologians, too, are not going to have an easy time of it. The number of Unitarian clergymen in the present table of contents is significant.

The Rev. Dr. Edward D. Neill leads off the *Macalester College Contributions* (Department of History, Literature, and Political Science) with a paper on the Virginia Governors under the London Company (St. Paul, Minn.).

A very interesting drawing is now on view at the rooms of the Royal Astronomical Society, London. It is a large and detailed delineation of the Milky Way, upon which Dr. Otto Baeddicker of Lord Rosse's Observatory has been at work for five years.

The report of the Bureau of Education for 1886–7 (the last published) gives the statistics of bequests and gifts to institutions of learning for that year. The entire sum given amounts to nearly five millions of dollars, and of that amount Harvard receives an even fifth. The whole amount given to institutions for the education of women alone is a paltry $53,000—for Mills Seminary, California. But this is not the worst of it. Four hundred thousand dollars, roughly, were contributed by women, and even of this sum a whole half was devoted to the education of men alone, the rest being given to schools for both sexes, chiefly to schools for secondary instruction. The amount of money which women can call their own is very small, and of the pittance which they can give away, it does seem deplorable that they should feel called upon to lavish a whole half, not upon men and women jointly but upon men to the exclusion of women. That they have not yet changed their plan of campaign is shown by the fact that it is a woman, Mrs. Caroline Donovan, who has just given a hundred thousand dollars to the Johns Hopkins University. Is there never to be a limit to the amount of self-forgetfulness which the Selfish Sex is willing to accept from the Unselfish Sex?

The Association of Collegiate Alumnæ is desirous of establishing a European fellowship, to be held each year by that woman college graduate who shows herself to be most deserving of receiving it, the award to be made by a committee appointed by the Association. Nearly enough annual subscriptions have already been received from the alumnæ themselves to start the project, but they desire to collect a fund of $10,000 in order to put it on a permanent basis. Contributions may be sent to Mrs. C. L. Franklin, 1400 Linden Avenue, Baltimore.

—The *Atlantic* for December opens with an Old Boston paper upon the colonial hostelry under the sign of the Bunch of Grapes, from Mr. Bynner's faithful and sympathetic pen; and, the scantiness of his materials being considered, he has certainly made the most of his story. The tavern had a hundred years of prosperity, and counts among its figures many of the famous men of the old Province and the rising nation, from Sam Sewall to Lafayette. The leaf of local history was well worth preserving, and it is prettily illuminated by Mr. Bynner's knowledge of colonial details. A specially timely article is furnished by Mr. Lawton, in connection with the awakened interest in Delphi occasioned by the project for the excavation of the site by the American School at Athens. He deals with the religious traditions of the locality, and in a general way with the political influence of the oracle, and will follow up this preliminary essay with one of more definite and greater historical interest. The Congress of All-America now sitting suggests the subject of Mr. Albert G. Browne's reminder of the important differences between the Latin and Saxon communities in this hemisphere, from which he argues very unfavorably for the hopes of close amity and intimacy between them, and reinforces his warning from the never-aging Farewell Address of Washington. Mr. Van Brunt writes a very interesting article on the prospects and practice of the art of architecture in the West, with a very hopeful feeling that the outcome will be good when the time of experiment and research is over. The remainder of the papers are all excellent, and touch upon a variety of subjects.

—*Harper's* Christmas number is, as usual, very richly illustrated with many full-page cuts. The distinctive Christmas art-subject is the Flight into Egypt, and is variously set forth with an admirable selection of the great works upon this motive in both Northern and Southern and mediæval and modern art. Mr. Child contributes a second art-paper upon the modern work of Russia, which he illustrates plentifully; but there remains something alien in its form which makes it seem distinctly foreign, and one misses in it any great imaginative or intellectual force. The designs by Abbey in illustration of the "Merry Wives of Windsor" easily hold the first place in interest, and they are excellent even beyond this artist's usual work, several of them being remarkable—though perhaps, when at their best, too much refined. The text by Mr. Lang, made prominent by a displeasing largeness of type, seems to us exceedingly poor work. The rest of the number is occupied with stories, not especially written for the holidays, and none the worse for that; but none of them represent their authors at their best. Mr. Hardy's "First Countess of Wessex," notwithstanding one or two powerful situations and a strong handling of the Squire's character, is unpleasant throughout, and in its conclusion is not without a certain worldly cynicism. Miss Wilkins contributes a Christmas tale in the traditional manner. Mr. Millet's production depends for its interest on a peculiar incident. Miss Jewett easily leads the rest in a portrait of an old sea-captain with the attendant village gossips; but the vein is not her happiest.

—*Scribner's* observes the season by an interesting and, we may hope, a useful paper upon the poor of this city, with illustrations that recall the aspects of European poverty. The text is excellent, both in matter and in tone, and is not so discouraging as it might naturally have been made. The great necessity of encouraging and developing all charitable enterprises, in order to meet the enormous evils bred under the conditions of the growth of the city, is emphasized in a dozen different ways, and brought before the public most effectively by a speaking survey of facts without any weakening touch of moralizing philanthropy. The interior views of the lodging-houses and some street scenes are the most striking, but the writer has succeeded in giving an impression rather of the social conditions of these nests than of the actual physical suffering and moral degradation of the individuals. The second notable article is Mr. Mitchell's account of the growth and present condition of the art of caricature in America, the illustrations of which are admirably selected. The two stories are both in

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the worst sensational taste, disagreeable in subject and unprofitable examples of vulgarity; neither is there anything in the tone of the writers or their art to extenuate the offence against good taste. Some illustrations of Breton life adorn the number, and Mr. Frederic's serial maintains its interest, though the story is too long delayed in deploying the figures on the Dutch background.

—The portraits of Wellington in the *Century* distinguish the number, and those of his young friends are interesting in themselves and in connection with his brief notes, which illustrate the child-loving side of the old General's nature. Mr. Joseph Jefferson's autobiography goes on in that peculiar style which seems to belong to theatrical memoirs, and makes them appear as if written by one old-fashioned hand, and the illustrations have the same traditional air. A third curious set of illustrations is given in connection with the description of the Panorama of the Nineteenth Century exhibited at the Paris Exposition, but the portraits are ineffective in consequence of their diminutive size. The solid article is upon the New Croton Aqueduct; the scale of the work and the immense physical labor involved in it are well given by the cuts, and the text is sufficient for its purpose. The scenery and properties of Japan are used to vary the style of the illustrations, and the paper accompanying these designs is instructive upon more serious topics than are suggested by them. The Lincoln biography takes up the episode of the President's entry into Richmond and his negotiations with regard to the meeting of the Virginia Legislature. Prof. Fisher discusses the position of the Bible in the Protestant religion as modified by the criticism and scholarship of this century, and advances his view that it is to be regarded as a result rather than the primary source of the religious life. The diminution of its authority allowed by him is of the slightest, but the change of perspective which he would make can hardly be adopted without loss on the supernatural side.

— The popular furor for Millet's "Angelus" naturally excites interest in its name. The first occurrence of the word thus far discovered in an English book is in Chambers's Cyclopædia of 1727. But no literary man used it before Longfellow, a hundred and twenty years after, in "Evangeline." These facts could not be known but for researches the results of which are shown under the word Angelus in the dictionary of the Philological Society now in the course of publication by Dr. Murray, who says that Angelus is "incorrectly explained" by Chambers. One at least of Dr. Murray's own illustrative citations, which asserts that "the Angelus did not come into use before the beginning of the sixteenth century," is also clearly incorrect. More than a century and a half before the year 1500, Popes and councils had combined by appeals to both hope and fear to enforce the ringing of the Angelus bell and the offering of the Angelus prayer. Thus, in 1347 a church council (*Concilum Senonense* [Sens]) ordained that an ordinance before made by Pope John XXII. (1316–1334) concerning saying the Ave Maria three times at the hour of curfew (*ignitegii*), should be inviolably observed. It ordered that the church bells should sound at the hour of curfew, and that parishioners should be charged, at this bell-stroke, on bended knees, to repeat the angels' salutation to the glorious Virgin Mary, thus gaining ten days' indulgence (*Et ex hoc lucrantur decem dies indulgentiæ*). In 1369 it was ordained that at dawn (*in aurora diei*) there should be three bell-strokes, and that whoever hearing said three aves and as many paternosters should obtain twenty days' indulgence (*in remissionem suorum peccaminum*). In 1472 Louis XI. ordered the Angelus to be repeated three times a day, and obtained a papal decree that whoever obeyed the order should thereby acquire three hundred additional days of indulgence. This threefold daily Angelus had also been recommended as early as 1423 in Mainz and Cologne; in Breslau in 1416, etc. These facts, condensed from an article on the Angelus, written more than two centuries ago by the accurate DuCange, prove the usage much more ancient than Dr. Murray would lead us to suppose. That the name was derived from the first words of the prayer, namely, *Angelus Domini nuntiavit Mariæ*, must be clear to every one at first sight of this salutatory service.

—The shocking murder of Mr. Edward Cunningham of Milton, Mass., on his own grounds by armed poachers, on November 21, removes a man of rare grace and strength of character, whose fearlessness, indeed, was the immediate cause of his death. An old China merchant, some forty years ago, who had faced at the risk of his life a furious Chinese mob, he knew how to esteem this despised people for their true worth. In California he publicly came out in their defence against shameful persecution which had the open or secret approval of the class in which he moved. With a like independence, as some of our readers will remember, he exposed in these columns the discreditable treaty of 1881 with China. "Our memory of him," says one who knew him most intimately, "will cling to the characteristics of the man—his unswerving kindness to all around him, high or low, whether of his own kin or not, especially the weak and suffering who needed his sympathy; and the unfailing cheerfulness with which he carried the burdens which a keen sense of duty led him to take up." "Without the slightest pretension of general philanthropy," he had "that very uncommon weakness which always led him to restrict himself in his own tastes in order to supply the necessities of others who came within his rather far-reaching circle." Mr. Cunningham was an infrequent but highly valued contributor to the literary department of the *Nation*.

—Vendôme was originally a Gallic oppidum, replaced later by a feudal castle, around which the modern town has arisen. It gave the name in the tenth century to an independent county, which, in 1515, was raised to a duchy. It is now in the Department of Loir-et-Cher, and the canton and commune still perpetuate the name. For Americans perhaps its greatest interest lies in the fact that it was the birthplace, home, and burial-place of the Rochambeau who led the French troops sent to help us in the war of the Revolution, as it had been of his ancestors and as it still is of his successors. The present representative of the family, owner of the Château de Rochambeau, is well known in this country, as he paid us two visits—one as a representative of the French Government to the Philadelphia Exhibition of 1876, and again in 1881 as one of the delegation of the descendants and representatives of French officers of our Revolutionary War, invited to the Yorktown Centennial. His archæological studies, pursued for twenty years, have just resulted in the first volume of a work, 'Le Vendomois: Épigraphie et Iconographie' (Paris: Champion), which is a very complete local history, canton by canton, commune by commune, and throws a curious light on many points of interest to students of history and of art. The present volume has many interesting drawings of churches and other ecclesiastical works, and some good examples of well-preserved domestic buildings, for châteaux have fared better in France than churches, and restoration has dealt more kindly with the lay than with the church properties. Few old families remain in possession of their ancestral homes, but there are still many of the old names referred to in this volume which have lineages going back to the crusades, while not a few historic names are borne by peasants and small farmers, still mindful of their old rights and privileges. Glatigny, the ancestral home of the family of Du Bellay, Princes d'Yvetot, still well preserved by its present owner, and an admirable example of the domestic architecture of the sixteenth century, is fully described.

— The Royal Astronomical Society has issued stringent instructions for observing the coming total solar eclipse to two astronomers some thousands of miles away. Eclipse observers are apt to be novices, as it is difficult to secure the same person for more than two or three occasions at most. Those who stay at home know well what should be done at the rare and swiftly passing moments of totality; it is the unpractised observer who forgets so much when the wonderful spectacle of the outflashing corona thrills his pulses. Accordingly, the programme for each individual should be simple and strictly adhered to. In the present instance, the Royal Astronomical Society hopes, if the weather is favorable, to clear up one or two doubtful questions: (1) whether the photographed corona changes perceptibly in two hours and a half; (2) whether the supposed "extension" of the corona is a solar appendage, or diffused light from the sky; (3) what is the photometric intensity of the corona at different points. Rev. S. J. Perry, F.R.S., has been detailed for a station at the Salut Isles, and Mr. Albert Taylor will soon land at Loanda in West Africa, establishing himself about sixty miles south of Professor Todd's party. By a comparison of the two sets of plates taken by Father Perry and those made by Mr. Taylor, questions 1 and 2 may be settled, while question 3 merely involves placing beforehand on each plate a set of standard photographic squares. These were described by Captain Abney to the Photographic Society in 1885, and have been used since by Mr. Pickering in Grenada in 1887, and also in California on January first of the present year. The coming eclipse will be followed by an interval of four years in which none will occur. It is the last of a tolerably rapid succession of important total eclipses.

WELLS'S RECENT ECONOMIC CHANGES.

Recent Economic Changes and their Effect on the Production and Distribution of Wealth and the Well-Being of Society. By David A. Wells, LL.D., D.C.L. D. Appleton & Co. 1889.

No one deserves to be called a statistician unless he can make figures interesting; and if Mr. Wells were to be judged by this criterion alone, he would be assigned a place among the highest. It might almost be said that under his hands figures themselves lose half their evil in losing all their dryness; yet, however indispensable this power may be, it constitutes but a small part of his qualifications. Many persons who deal with figures are imperfectly acquainted with political economy, and many economists have little experience in business. Mr. Wells, however, is not only an economist, but also a man of affairs; he has the necessary

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data for economic deductions at his command, the wisdom requisite to perceive their significance, and the ability to make the most effective use of all his materials. His previous works have secured him distinction, but the subjects discussed in them have been in the main of a character to interest special classes rather than the general public. This volume, on the other hand, appeals to all mankind. No one, however well informed, can fail to add much to his knowledge by reading it, and the most impassive must be thrilled by accounts of human achievements that surpass the wonders accomplished by the genii of the Arabian Nights.

It is, indeed, quite possible that many readers will be content to follow Mr. Wells's narrative of the facts of the industrial progress of modern times, without concerning themselves much with his argument. Most people know in a general way that great changes have taken place within a generation, that there have been important inventions and discoveries, that many run to and fro, and knowledge is increased. Very few know definitely what the nature of these changes has been, how completely the new order has displaced the old, how swiftly and how extensively the results of inventive progress have become manifest. For information of this kind, accurately stated and systematically displayed, we know of nothing to compare with this book. It is as full of facts as an encyclopædia and as fascinating as a romance. It presents a capital instance of the use of the imagination in science, not glorifying "all-inventive man" after the fashion of the chorus in the "Alcestis" of Euripides, but showing how rationally we may consider "that which he has done but earnest of the things which he shall do."

If the aim of the author were only to astound his readers by revealing to them the prodigious advances of the present age, and the boundless possibilities of the future, he must be held to have amply succeeded. It would be easy to fill our space with illustrations of his skill in marshalling facts in the most telling way, as when he mentions, in speaking of the cheapening of ocean freights, that it has been computed that "half a sheet of note-paper will develop sufficient power, when burned in connection with the triple-expansion engine, to carry a ton a mile in an Atlantic steamer." Equally effective in the discussion of the future supply of food is the use made of Mr. Atkinson's calculation that the present wheat crop of the United States could be grown upon wheat land of the best quality selected from that part of the area of the State of Texas by which that single State exceeds the present area of the German Empire. But it is the cumulative effect of multiplied instances of this kind that gives its overwhelming force to Mr. Wells's argument, and of this effect quotations can give no idea.

The outline of the argument is as follows: For the last twenty years trade has been universally depressed or disturbed, which implies the existence of a cause universal in its influence. This cause is overproduction, in the sense of production in excess of demand at remunerative prices to the producer. It is owing to this cause, and not to a scarcity of gold, that prices have declined, that laborers are displaced by machines, and the profits of capital have diminished. The value of things, as Henry C. Carey used to maintain, is not determined by the cost of production, but by the cost of reproduction; and, measured in this way, vast quantities of fixed capital have been made worthless by improved processes. No one can engage in a manufacture without running the risk of finding himself suddenly working at a loss, owing to the application of labor-saving inventions. Consumers, however, have been benefited—the laboring class, considering its increase in numbers, as much as any; the capitalists, considering the fall in the rate of interest, the least of all. It is the incessant readjustment to new conditions that causes the present discontent, and not any deterioration in the welfare of mankind. The social troubles that arise are necessarily connected with our unparalleled progress, and are not due to any defect in our institutions. As society becomes accustomed to its rapid pace, these troubles will settle themselves; nor is it impossible to foresee how a readjustment of industrial relations in the line of greater freedom for individual enterprise may take place.

We have said enough of the splendid array of illustrations which Mr. Wells brings to his subject, and his argument in the main amounts to a demonstration. In our opinion it would have been improved, however, had he used throughout, as he does occasionally, the terms "disturbance" in place of "depression," and "cheaper production" in place of "overproduction." As he shows by manifold proofs, there has been no depression, but a vast increase, of trade in the period of which he treats, and he recognizes the truth that universal overproduction is an absurd idea. There is some reason to think that the author himself has been unconsciously affected by this confusion of terms if we compare the statement on p. 175, that there has been an almost universal complaint of the absence of all profit in producing wheat, with the note to p. 177; and the figures showing the cost of producing wheat in California, p. 172, and those on the preceding pages relating to the increase of production. Why, if there was no profit in it, did the product of Dakota rise from nothing in 1881 to 62,000,000 bushels in 1887? A minor inconsistency as to the wages of farm-hands in England is to be noted in comparing p. 88 with pp. 85, 353, and 407.

It would be an agreeable task, did our space permit, to give some account of Mr. Wells's exposition of the distinguished success in discouraging trade which has attended the protective policy of various European governments, and especially of his brilliant and entertaining narrative of their dealings with the sugar industry—the result being in the case of Germany, as Prof. Sumner puts it, that "the Germans have the industry and the English have the sugar." But it is impossible to call attention to all that is meritorious in so many-sided a book as this, and we must content ourselves with advising every one who wishes to understand our modern world of trade to buy it and study it. We have noted errors, probably due to careless proof-reading, on pp. 44, 144, 146, 189, 201, 391, 398, and 412. As it is probable that several editions of the book will be called for, these defects should be removed.

BERING.

Vitus Bering, the Discoverer of Bering Strait. By Peter Lauridsen. Revised by the author and translated from the Danish by Julius E. Olson. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1889. 8vo, pp. xvi., 223. Illustrated.

THIS book is a misnomer, since Bering Strait was discovered by Simeon Deshneff, nearly sixty years before it was entered by Bering, and its author is of the opinion that Bering himself was well aware of the discoveries of Deshneff, and even directed the attention of Müller, the geographer, to the records of the expedition in the archives of Yakutsk. Why he should claim the discovery for Bering is incomprehensible, but perhaps not more so than several other features of the book, as will shortly appear.

A good life of Bering has always been a desideratum. As the first educated officer to take command of explorations in those seas, his figure can but be conspicuous. That such a life has not been attempted in the country which he served, is probably accounted for by the fact that, after having toiled and suffered untold privations in the preparation for each of his expeditions, when the tide was at the flood and the fateful hour arrived, the hard-sought opportunity invariably slipped from his fingers. His voyages offer a spectacle of Herculean endeavor on the one hand and of pitiable anti-climax on the other. "Parturiunt montes" might have been his motto. Nobody likes such a subject for literary art, at least in biography, however otherwise amiable, honest, and pious, or hard-working; though very human, it is wretchedly inartistic in one's hero to do little when he might have done much, to turn his back on doors hospitably open, to shut his eyes to the apples of the Hesperides after he has slain the dragon—all without any perceptible motive or reason except the incapacity for striking when the iron was hot.

Some of the author's hypercritical comments in the Danish edition on the first Arctic explorer of our time have been very temperately answered by Baron Nordenskiöld in the Journal of the American Geographical Society (vol. xvii., New York, 1885, p. 267). In this reply the Baron, with that kindness which should always be accorded the unfortunate, suggests that the incapacity shown by Bering during his last expedition was due to the fact that he was ill of scurvy. Doubtless this did aggravate his natural defects, but it is sufficiently evident from Mr. Lauridsen's account of him, without going further, that the Russians, who knew him best, are practically unanimous in the opinion that there was a streak of indecision and feebleness in Bering's otherwise admirable character which was exhibited in all his undertakings. It certainly was as obvious in his first voyage as in his last. It is very true, nevertheless, that the dislike which such weakness engenders in the observer may have operated, and probably did operate, to render the estimate of Bering by his contemporaries unjustly low, and that it is but equitable to review the case before their judgment becomes irrevocable by lapse of time.

Herr Lauridsen, through the patronage of a Danish institution of learning, was enabled to visit St. Petersburg to prepare himself for writing the present work. He seems to have been a good deal surprised to find that the books and manuscript records relating to the explorer were in the Russian language (p. xv); but, by the kind intervention of the Director of the Hydrographic Department, translations were made for him. So far as the book itself indicates, his material has been obtained from printed sources; its chief value is in presenting in English some important data hitherto veiled under the obscurity of the Russian tongue. Of original research the work offers little, unless the correlation of matter as above obtained can be so named.

If Herr Lauridsen's preparation for original work in the Russian archives was not of a serious character, he at least was well adapted for polemics. Though an ordinary person making no pretensions to historical research, in compiling a synopsis of the progress of Russian discovery, might consider himself justified in depending on the official maps of the Imperial Academy of Sciences and the officially

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published records of surviving members of the expeditions concerned, he would receive no mercy from this gentleman, who cannot understand how a bay could exist between points as far apart as "Copenhagen and Bremen." It is even forbidden to say that Bering "took to his bed," since this indicates (p. 152) that that necessary action is considered as "a kind of crime." As Gerhard Friedrich Staatsrath von Müller was the historian of the expeditions, he comes in for much upbraiding and dark insinuation, though perhaps less than is dispensed to those who have innocently quoted him as an authority. An amusing instance of this occurs in the matter of the maps of the first expedition to Bering Strait, of which Herr Lauridsen gives reproductions, taken from D'Anville and Müller. He has denounced (pp. 45-49) the map of Müller with great vehemence while praising the work of Bering upon which it was chiefly based. Now, the only essential difference between the two maps in the delineation of the shores of the Tchuktchi Peninsula is this: On Bering's map the northern coast, which he had not visited, is represented as projecting in a great cape which has four islands off the end of it. On Müller's map this cape is expanded with broken lines in a circular manner (after an old fashion of cartographers when a coast was unknown), and bears the legend, "Extent unknown." As no such cape or islands exist, and the shore does not project in this vicinity, it is evident that Müller has the best of it, in spite of our author. Again, he accuses Müller of misplacing on his chart the name of the Tchukotskoi Cape with a desire to injure Bering (p. 44), while on page 32 he admits that Bering did not mention the name in his journal, and on the other hand we know that the word merely means the Cape of the Tchuktchis, and was variously applied by the adventurers in that part of the world.

To do the work of a biographer in this case it is needed that one should be able to read Russian, should have a knowledge of old-fashioned nautical methods and terms, and be familiar with the best modern charts of the region. In none of these particulars was Herr Lauridsen properly qualified for his task. We even find him attempting to prove Bering's landfall on Kayak Island at great length, a decision which has been the common property of cartographers since Sokoloff, the distinguished naval historian of Russia, first published a facsimile of Khitroff's chart in 1851 (Zapiski, Hydr. Dept. ix, p. 191, pl. ix) down to the Alaska Coast Pilot of 1883 (p. 205). The same conclusion had even been reached, without the aid of Khitroff's chart, by Martin Sauer (Billings's Voyage, p. 194) as early as 1802. We have called attention to the defects of our author's methods somewhat at length, because, since we are now the owners of Alaska, the name of Bering will belong to our annals, and the record of his services deserves a consideration which in this case it has not received. His ghost might well implore to be delivered from his friends.

In the whirl of indiscriminate eulogy and denunciation which seem to form the staple of this book, some things the author has made less foggy than before. He has shown better than has been done in English the itinerary of Bering's first voyage. He has called attention to the truly stupendous difficulties under which the preparations for the third voyage were made. That his own character was to blame for part of the difficulty did not make it less of an obstruction to Bering. Lastly, Lauridsen has thrown a stronger light on the patience, persistency, honesty, and lovableness which Steller eulogized in the unfortunate commander.

It is very deplorable that some years ago the ancient records of early exploration gathered at Yakutsk were destroyed by fire. Nothing was saved. Few had been copied, and an interesting field of historical research has disappeared. How much there may be in St. Petersburg is a matter of doubt. Lauridsen says "cartloads," but specifies nothing in particular. It is to be hoped that the Russia of the future will supply her own historians, who will at least be free from petty racial jealousies, such as nullified the efforts, sometimes, even of the Great Peter, in the hot rivalry of foreign candidates for office and promotion. In a scientific biography such factors must of course be noticed, but that, as seems to be the case here and there in this work, they should furnish a motive and a color to a modern writer, is much to be deplored. It is a false patriotism which engages in such ignoble strife.

Vitus Jonassen Svendsen was born in Horsens, a small seaport of Jutland, in the summer of 1681. In after life he took the surname of his mother, Anna Bering, whose family was presumably better than that of his father, and has furnished a very respectable number of men of note in literature, law, and theology to Danish annals. His parents were poor and had a large family. The boy went to sea, and about 1703 joined the Russian naval service, where Peter was offering unusual opportunities to foreigners. His name in Russian is always given as Ivan Ivanovitch Bering, but, if we understand Sokoloff's account, it was necessary for him to join the Russian Church, and to take a new baptismal name was required of all such recruits. In this way he received the name of John or Ivan. As has been shown by several authors, the Germanized form "Behring," which has obtained such a hold in popular literature and cartography, was never used by Bering, and has no present claims to consideration.

Those who are interested in the closing scenes of this remarkable life will find important data in the *Deutsche Geographische Blätter* for 1885, and in the Proceedings of the United States National Museum for 1884, contributed by Dr. Leonhard Stejneger, who, within the last ten years, has made a special exploration and study of Bering Island and its fauna, under the patronage of the Smithsonian Institution.

TEN BRINK'S HISTORY OF ENGLISH LITERATURE.

Geschichte der englischen Literatur. Von Bernhard ten Brink. Zweiter Band, bis zur Thronbesteigung Elisabeths. Erste Hälfte. Berlin: Oppenheim; New York: B. Westermann & Co. Pp. 352.

It is now *eleven* years since we had the pleasure of reviewing Ten Brink's first volume in these columns. Although various causes have conspired to bring about this delay, it will be enough to specify one—the author's extreme conscientiousness. Those who are familiar with his method know that he is one of the most painstaking literary scholars living. And the merest glance at the present volume (even in its incomplete state) should satisfy any one that it is the concentrated result of years of research. The eleven years of which we have spoken have been memorable in English philology. On the purely linguistic side, they have witnessed the placing of Anglo-Saxon grammar on a permanent basis through the labors of Paul, Sievers, Sweet, and their associates. On the literary side, or mixed linguistic and literary, they have witnessed the success of such periodicals as the *Anglia* and the *Englische Studien*, and the enormous expansion of the Early English Text, Chaucer, Shakspere, and other societies. Here in America the impetus given to the study of both language and literature by our newly established undergraduate and post-graduate courses is almost incalculable. This journal, in particular, feels that it is addressing a different generation from that of 1878. And indubitably Ten Brink himself realizes all this, and knows that he is now looked up to by hundreds and thousands who can imagine no greater pleasure than that of being really taught by him. Mindful of the maxim *Noblesse oblige*, he has striven nobly to make his teaching worthy of himself, of his readers, of his subject. If ever there was a literary history that evinced microscopic erudition, artistic sense of proportion, clearness and grace of expression, and an abiding good sense that appeals to the purely human in us all, assuredly this is the one. It is worth the waiting for.

Of the present instalment of 352 pp. we shall discuss only 322 pp. The remainder, which treats of the beginnings of the revival of letters in England, must be deferred until the completion of the volume. These 322 pages, then, have two main subjects, viz., Chaucer and the miracle-morality plays. What does not fall under these heads may be summed up as follows: Wiclif, pp. 1–33; Gower, pp. 39–40, 101–106, 137–143, 211; Trevisa, 83–85; Richard de Bury 100, 101; a recurrence to 'Piers Plowman,' 208–210; and the so-called school of Chaucer (Occleve, Lydgate, etc.), 217-243. Our tabulation is not so otiose as might seem, this instalment being printed without table of contents. In round numbers, Wiclif gets 33 pp., Chaucer an almost unbroken stretch of 180 pp., the religious drama 80 pp. From these data the reader can make his own deductions concerning the author's sense of proportion.

Ten Brink's survey and estimate of Wiclif's life and writings are in every respect admirable. It would scarcely be possible to improve upon his treatment, or indeed to make any serious addition, without writing a separate Wiclif biography. We venture to criticise only one point, namely, his strictures upon Wiclif as a translator, pp. 27, 28, 32. Are participial and relative clauses such a fault after all? And are they exclusively Latinisms, or may not some of them be due to French influence?

Before taking up Chaucer, let us interpose a word or two in praise of Ten Brink's treatment of Chaucer's contemporary and would-be rival, Gower. All that he says of Gower is so apt, so convincing, as to fill one with wondering envy. It is easy nowadays to understand and appreciate Chaucer, for it is quite the correct thing. But it is and will ever be hard to do justice to a pedant and *poète manqué* like Gower. In particular Ten Brink's critique of the 'Confessio Amantis,' pp. 137-143, is a memorable specimen of sober justice tempered with mercy that is not strained. Yet we question his representation of the stimulus of the 'Confessio' upon Chaucer, p. 143; to say that Gower's laurels *liessen ihm keine Ruhe*, is a trifle hazardous even for one of Ten Brink's powers of divination.

What shall we say of Chaucer himself in this novel illumination? When we reflect upon the innumerable beauties and equally innumerable problems of language, thought, allusion that the fourteenth century has bequeathed to us with the name of Chaucer, we are tempted to assume *à priori* that to dispose of them in considerably less than two hundred pages is an

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impossibility. Or shall we denominate Ten Brink's critique, like the first Basque grammar, a solution of the impossible? If Ten Brink has not squared the Chaucerian circle, he has come so near it that we and our successors for many a generation shall be content to work by his formulæ.

This is the author's portrait of his poet, p. 34: pleasing in appearance, striking and attractive by virtue of a certain serious, dreamy expression; inclined to embonpoint (at least late in life); amorous (*sehr verliebter Natur*); a jovial companion, affable, modest, cheerful, although at times too taciturn; when opportunity offered, capable of playing the rogue (*Schalk*) and surprising you with his transcendent humor. It would not be safe to challenge any one of these assertions. At least we are persuaded that the biographer, if challenged, would promptly produce chapter and verse for each. Yet in general we look with some mistrust upon the tendency in Ten Brink (and, indeed, in most of the modern Chaucer students) to interpret a decided personal element into writings of a very conventional cast. It does not matter much whether the writing be a Complaint, or a book of the "Duchess," a Sonnet, or an Eclogue. Were Spenser interpreted as rigidly, for instance, as Chaucer has been, what should we have? The conventional writer of the 'Shepherd's Calendar' is bent with grief, wrinkled with the crow's-feet of care, looking back upon the four ages of his life. The real Spenser is under thirty, writing cheerily to his friends, making real love to a woman in London while sighing for the half-mythical Rosalind of the glen. The 'House of Fame' is evidently full of autobiographical touches. These were well brought out twenty years ago by the author, in his 'Chaucer-Studien.' Yet we cannot go to the same length in estimating the relation between Dante and the 'House of Fame.' On this point we sympathize somewhat with Palgrave in his recent letters to the London *Academy*.

Ten Brink has displayed his utmost ingenuity in classifying and grouping the 'Canterbury Tales.' Whether his arrangement will remain wholly unmodified, is a question for time to decide. It is one that will require repeated practical testing. In justice to the author it should be stated that the data upon which he bases his conclusions are not cited in this instalment, but reserved for the concluding part, where they will appear as appendices. Usually Ten Brink is nothing if not clear. But in one instance at least his language is unfortunate. The "ordinary reader," not on his guard, will be misled, we fear, by the wording of page 134 into taking January and May to be the story actually told by the Wife of Bath. And in other passages the style is vague because too stylistic and not sufficiently dogmatic. The "ordinary reader" needs to be told more positively what is before him, and ordered more peremptorily to believe and to disbelieve. The grouping of the 'Canterbury Tales,' for instance, is not brought out typographically in a way to strike the eye.

It would be superfluous to do more than state that Ten Brink has abandoned his former belief (in the 'Chaucer-Studien') that the 'Romance of the Rose,' as we have it, is by Chaucer, although we are by no means satisfied that the final word has been spoken on this vexed question. And it would be equally superfluous to dwell at length upon the rare excellence of the various literary judgments to be found in these pages. Ten Brink's parallel between Petrarch and Voltaire, p. 53, is as bold as it is novel to us, but we are not at all disposed to cavil at it. The analogies pointed out, p. 97, between Pandarus and Polonius, Mercutio, and Sancho Panza, are both shrewd and diverting. In treating Troilus and Cressida, our author has fairly let himself go. As for such *loci classici* as the Prologue, the Knight's Tale, and Reynard and Chanticleer, one scarcely needs to be a Ten Brink to write of them pleasantly and profitably. But here again the graceful illumination, p. 156, of the Prologue with regard to Lessing's canon of description warns us not to take too much for granted.

Like master like servant: the adage might be applied—with a modification—to Ten Brink's treatment of Chaucer's pupils and imitators. His estimate of Occleve is good; even better is that of Lydgate. Neither could be improved without writing a monograph, as we said above concerning Wiclif.

The author's treatment of the religious drama in England is even more original than his Chaucer lucubrations. In this field he has had less help from the pioneer work of others. Two novel features are especially prominent—the ascendancy of the northern districts (Yorkshire), and the destructive analysis of the so-called Coventry plays. Although it has long been suspected or assumed that the beginnings of the English drama were Anglian rather than Saxon, it remained for Ten Brink to raise the guess, or hypothesis, to the dignity of a working theory. With regard to the Coventry collection, Ten Brink rejects all identification of it with the Franciscan Order in Coventry, and looks upon it as the "property," so to speak, of a wandering troupe, carelessly put together. His remarks upon isolated religious plays or small groups of such are equally to the point. In his treatment of the Moralities there is one position, or assumption, that we are disposed to combat. It is to be found, somewhat disguised, at p. 318, where we read that comedy deals rather with types of character, and that the greatest comic dramatists aim at reforming mankind. This may answer for the Latin-French comedy, but scarcely for English, unless we are prepared to admit that Ben Jonson is superior to Shakspere. We doubt, too, whether the allegorical drama developed (*sich gestaltete*) into the real. Of course we admit unhesitatingly that it helped, by training actors and the public. But to our eye there is an unbridged gulf between the best allegorical play and the poorest comedy.

We have two strictures to pass upon Ten Brink's method. One is that he rates the literary value of our religious drama too high. Yet this was perhaps inevitable. It is in human nature that a man who by dint of uncommon energy has worked himself into a difficult subject should overprize it. Obstacles overcome seem beauties. This human trait is a wise dispensation of Providence, for without it scholarship might not rise to its sunniest heights. Of Ten Brink in particular we hold that unless nature had fortunately endowed him with the gift of seeing in these old plays more beauties than we can, he would never have become the quick-witted interpreter that he is.

Our other stricture is, that he has not given an adequate account of the origin and early steps of the religious drama in general, *i. e.*, in Europe outside of England. Two pages and a half, pp. 244-246, are all that we get upon a subject which at once attracts and repels by its exceeding difficulty. Their character of vagueness, meagreness (aridity is scarcely too harsh a term) is not redeemed by the author himself labelling them *eine typisch gehaltene Skizze*. Ten Brink's book is for the "ordinary reader." What scholar of adequate attainments, then, has familiarized the ordinary reader with the nascent liturgical drama? How much, rather how little, has Ten Brink the right to take for granted? True, if one has struggled through Ward, Aubertin, Klein, Moue, Lange, Wirth, and a few other writers of varying excellence, one may have a glimmering insight into the process by which cult grew into dramatic action. But such a reader is no ordinary reader. Had Ten Brink taken twenty pages instead of two, he could have made at least the main points clear. As it is, his "sketch" will only mystify the ordinary reader. The specialist alone will accept it as a useful epitome.

May we hope that the conclusion of the volume will not keep us too long in suspense?

BRAZIL IN 1889.

Le Brésil en 1889. Paris: Charles Delagrave. 1889. Pp. 699.

THIS work comes with a certain timeliness at the present moment, when the attention of the world is drawn to Brazil by the remarkable revolution in government which has lately taken place in that country. The publication of the book is, in a sense, a result of the Paris Exposition. Nearly two years ago the idea was conceived by certain Brazilian merchants in Paris that that country should be represented in the Exposition. To this end an appeal was made to Brazilians in Paris and to French merchants engaged in trade with Brazil, the result of which was the formation in that city in March, 1888, of a Franco-Brazilian committee, composed of citizens of both countries. Through the exertions of this committee, the patronage of the late Emperor, Dom Pedro II., was secured for the project, and in July, 1888, an appropriation was obtained from the Brazilian Parliament. Having succeeded in their efforts to have Brazil officially represented in the Exposition, the committee subsequently, in response to a desire for information in regard to that country, intrusted to one of their number, Mr. de Santa Anna Nery, the task of editing and publishing a book which should contain full and comprehensive information in regard to the social, political, commercial, and physical condition of the country up to the present time. The result is the present work, which is remarkably complete, as may be seen by a reference to the subjects which it contains.

In the beginning a general review of the geographical features of the country is given by the editor. Following this is an article on the hydrography of the country, by the Baron de Teffé, Director of the Bureau of Hydrography at Rio de Janeiro; on the climate, by Henri Morize, astronomer at the Imperial Observatory; on mineralogy, by Henri Gorceix, Director of the School of Mines at Ouro Preto; on the history of Brazil (nearly a hundred pages), by the Baron de Rio Branco, a member of the Historical and Geographical Institute of Brazil; on population, territory, and the electorate, by J. P. Favilla Nunes, a Brazilian publicist; on the labor of the country, by the editor; on the agricultural zones, by André Rebouças, professor at the Polytechnic School at Rio de Janeiro; on agricultural institutions, by J. M. Leitão da Cunha, a deputy of the General Assembly from the province of Pará; on finances, by A. Cavalcanti, a Brazilian economic writer; on banks and institutions of credit, by Luiz Rodriguez D'Oliveira, an eminent Brazilian merchant in Paris; on railways, by Fernandes Pinheiro, Chief of the Commission of the Brazilian Ministry of Public Works in Europe and to the United States; on commerce and navigation, by the editor; on the postal system, telegraphs, and telephones, by the same; on immigration, by E. da Silva Prado; on the

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press, by Ferreira de Araujo, editor of the *Gazeta de Noticias* of Rio de Janeiro; on art, by E. da Silva Prado; on public instruction, by the editor and others; on literature, by the editor; on science and the National Museum, by Ladislau Netto, director of that institution; on literary and industrial property, by the editor; on the protection of infancy, by the Baron d'Itajubá, formerly Minister to the United States and now Minister to Italy; on the organization of the judiciary, by S. N. MacDowell, a deputy in the General Assembly; on the navy, by M. J. Alves Barboza, a captain in the Imperial Navy. From this outline of the contents of the book, it is seen that there is information to be found in it on almost any subject which the student of Brazilian questions may desire to examine.

A fact not generally appreciated in the case of Brazil is its great territorial extent. It contains, roughly speaking, nearly 3,300,000 square miles, or about 250,000 more than the United States, if we exclude Alaska. If we include Alaska, the territory of the United States exceeds that of Brazil by only about 320,000 square miles, which is little more than the area of the State of Texas. According to the imperfect census of 1872, Brazil then had a population of 9,930,478 inhabitants, of whom 1,510,806 were slaves. Of the total population 3,801,782 were mulattoes and mongrels, 3,787,289 were of the Caucasian race, 1,959,452 of the African, and 386,955 were Indian-Americans. The census, however, did not include several parishes of the empire, nor 10,993 Indians living in villages in the province of Maranham, nor 4,059 inhabitants of the province of Rio de Janeiro. Of persons included in the census, 5,123,869 were males, of whom 4,318,699 were free and 805,170 slaves; 4,806,609 were females, of whom 4,100,973 were free and 705,636 slaves. Of the total number of inhabitants 9,902,715 were classed as Catholics, and 27,766 as non-Catholics, the latter all being free. In respect to nationality, of the free population 8,176,191 were ranged as Brazilians and 243,481 as foreigners.

Since 1872 no census of the population of Brazil has been taken, and it is consequently impossible to determine what the present number of inhabitants actually is. Mr. Favilla Nunes, basing his calculations upon the rate of increase by birth and immigration, estimates the present population of Brazil at about 14,000,000, or an average of less than five inhabitants to the square mile. Into the apportionment of this population as between the pure and mongrel races he does not enter, and reference on this subject must be had to the statistics of 1872, bearing in mind, however, that since 1872 the ratio of increase by immigration has constantly grown. In the fourteen years from 1873 to 1886, there were 304,796 immigrants, of whom 110,891 were Portuguese, 112,279 Italians, 23,469 Germans, 15,684 Spaniards, and 9,022 Austrians; the rest being divided between various nationalities. The statistics above recited convey a vivid notion of the mixed character of the Brazilian population. It is stated that the Republic has proclaimed universal suffrage, or manhood suffrage conditioned upon the ability to read and write. In this relation it is pertinent to observe two facts. By a law approved May 13, 1888, by the Princess Imperial, then regent, slavery was entirely abolished. Prior to that time efforts had been made to the same end, and a system of gradual emancipation was established. But by the official report of the Government of March 30, 1887, there still remained at that date 723,419 slaves. The law of 1888 simply said: "From the date of this law slavery is declared abolished in Brazil." The other fact is, that out of the whole population in Brazil there were in 1887, according to the revised lists of that year, which are probably the last made, only about 220,000 electors, or 1.5 for every hundred of the whole population, capable of voting for members of the provincial and national legislative assemblies. This fact may in part account for the circumstance which has recently caused so many expressions of surprise, that the acceptance of the revolution has apparently been so general, notwithstanding that at the late elections for the National Assembly only two Republican members were returned.

One of the problems necessarily to be dealt with is that of finance. The public debt of the country, including emissions of paper currency, is about $375,000,000. To supply the expenses of Government and to maintain the public credit, recourse has been had to imposts on lands, industries, and professions, circulation and transportation, consumption, and to duties both upon imports and upon exports. The sudden emancipation of the slaves in 1888 has necessarily had a disturbing effect upon production.

For electoral purposes the Empire of Brazil was recently divided into 125 districts, which together elected 125 temporary representatives (deputies) for four years, 60 representatives for life (senators), to the national Parliament, and 641 members to the provincial assemblies, chosen for two years. These 125 electoral districts comprised 20 provinces and 892 municipalities, with 330 cities, 526 towns, and 1,866 parishes. In 1881 the system of voting directly for representatives to the national Parliament was first established, and at the same time the *scrutin d'arrondissement* was substituted for the *scrutin de liste* in the election of deputies.

To attempt to give an account of the reign of Dom Pedro II., the lately deposed Emperor, would be to review the progress which Brazil has made in the last half century in the development of liberal institutions. As a ruler, he was characterized by remarkable breadth of view and by great humanity of conduct. In nothing is his reign more remarkable than in the development of the system of public instruction. Primary instruction, however, was wisely left to the regulation of the provincial assemblies by the Constitution of 1824 and the additional act of 1834, before he ascended the throne. The result has been a sure and healthy development of an extensive system of primary schools. In 1869 the number of public schools of that character was 3,516; they were attended by 115,735 pupils of both sexes between the ages of six and fifteen years, which are the years of eligibility to such schools. At that time there was one school for every 541 children of the requisite age. It is estimated that at the present time there are not less than 7,500 primary schools, mostly public, and about 300,000 pupils. In some of the provinces the increase in the number of schools has been remarkably rapid. For example, in the Province of San Paulo there were in 1882 774 primary schools; in 1886 there were 1,034, or an increase of 260 in four years. In these statistics private schools are not included. Only the higher instruction has been under the control of the central Government. Under such control are the two faculties of law at San Paulo and Recife, the two faculties of medicine of Rio de Janeiro and Bahia, the Polytechnic School at Rio de Janeiro, and the School of Mines at Ouro Preto.

HOGUE'S ATTIC VERB.

The Irregular Verbs of Attic Prose: their Forms, Prominent Meanings, and Important Compounds; together with Lists of related Words and English Derivatives. By Addison Hogue, Professor of Greek in the University of Mississippi. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Prof. Hogue seems to have discovered a genuine deficiency in our apparatus for classical study, and to have filled it very successfully. He has produced a work which will be an instructive companion not only to college students in their reading, but to teachers of preparatory schools. A slight expansion of the plan would make a complete record of Attic prose usage in the verbal forms, within certain limits, and a convenient book of reference for scholars of advanced attainments. The author's object is more modest, however. He has written

"not for scholars, but for students, with the hope that they will find much that they need, and find it in a form more accessible and intelligible to them than it can possibly be in the lexicons, seeing that these have to cover a vast territory not touched upon here, and have to present their results in such compact space and in such abbreviated form that many a student loses himself in trying to pick out what is good Attic from what is not."

He aims chiefly at facilitating a mastery of the forms and the acquisition of a vocabulary. He does this, in the first place, by treating the formation of the regular verbs more fully and with more numerous examples than the grammars in ordinary use. He next presents the irregular verbs in Part II. (which occupies nearly 200 pages), and gives with great care and minuteness the forms in actual use in Attic prose down to the period of Aristotle, together with their principal compounds and their more direct English derivatives. He makes each verb, in fact, the subject of a short dissertation, in which he sets forth clearly and accurately its chief meanings, the peculiarities of its forms and tenses, the more usual constructions and idioms, and illustrates these various points with well-chosen examples, mostly from Attic authors. It may be said that such particulars can be extracted from the grammars, the lexicons, and from Veitch's 'Catalogue of Irregular Verbs.' As a matter of fact, however, a single article, such as those on ἀκούω, γιγνώσκω, δέω, δέομαι, παίω, or πιπράσκω, condenses the results of extensive reading and observation, and presents certain groups of facts which the learner could collect for himself only after many wanderings and misapprehensions.

We are not sure that the list of derivatives is so valuable a feature as the author fancies, or deserves as much space as it occupies. They are sometimes explained with a digressiveness which, though quite proper in the familiar talk of the class-room, simply trenches on the province of the English dictionary or encyclopædia, and appeals, we believe, to a different plane of intelligence from that contemplated in the general plan of the work. Any intelligent student will easily trace out most of them for himself, and will enjoy the process of discovery, and hold fast to his Greek all the more for his own researches. Whether *Anatolic* and *Kaloramic* and *Chrematistics* will help either his Greek or his English to any useful extent, may be doubted, though these are, of course, extreme instances. On the other hand, discussions like the note on the aorists of πέτομαι and the compounds of λέγω are a praiseworthy departure from the unavoidable limits and methods of the ordinary school grammar. They introduce the student to the uncertainties and the conflicts of authorities; they show him

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that, in certain questions of language, there is no Vatican to render infallible decisions, and that his grammars and lexicons are founded on processes of observation and discrimination which he himself can imitate, and the results of which he may possibly improve.

We notice a few slips in facts or expression, and some apparent inconsistencies. The statement (page 204) that Thucydides has "only φθῆναι," is an oversight, as φθάσαι is found several times. *Paschal* is, rather strangely, referred to πάσχω. The remark on ἵστημι (page 108 g) is misleading: "In the compounds the intransitive tenses are occasionally found as transitive." The meaning is not that the intransitive tenses change their force, but that a transitive force is introduced by the preposition. Under καλέω (page 118) the rendering of the perfect passive, "by what name have you been called," neglects the peculiar meaning of the verb in that tense. Would it not be well to indicate that, as a matter of strict Attic diction, the authority is expressly in favor of ἐδέδισαν instead of ἐδεδίεσαν, and of the shorter contracted forms in certain parts of λούω? Is δέω, *to bind*, contracted throughout simply "by way of distinction" from δέω, *to lack, need?* The analogous case of κλάω, *to break*, and κλάω, *to weep*, points to the influence of a digamma in the forms which do not contract. To say that εἶπον is a "more usual" form than ἔλεξα (page 132) hardly expresses the comparative rareness of the latter aorist, which is used oftener, we believe, by Xenophon than by any other writer. Yet, in the 'Anabasis,' we find only one form of ἔλεξα to about five of εἶπον; in the 'Hellenica' (Books II and III), one to thirty; in half-a-dozen orations of Lysias, a solitary stranded optative, λέξαιμι, to thirty-one forms of εἶπον. In Plato, the disproportion is still more striking. We cannot tell whether βλαστάνω, θιγγάνω, and ἔτλην are omitted accidentally or because they so rarely occur in Attic prose. In this matter Prof. Hogue has gone so far that he might well have gone a little further, and made his record complete. He mentions, for instance, such singularities as ἀμφιλεξάντων and ἔβησα in Xenophon, and ἀντιλέξειν in Lysias, and those interesting fossil forms of the first aorist active of ἄγω which crop out once in Antiphon and Thucydides. Why not mention also περιέπω, used a few times by Xenophon, and the rare aorist active of ἀπαγορεύω? Why not, since defectiveness is an irregularity, include other defective verbs as well as μειδιάω, and thus make a special catalogue which, by reason of its completeness, would have its permanent value for scholars as well as for learners? The list, we believe, would not be much extended, and would call attention to the differences of usage that exist between classic writers within the brief period of about a century.

The illustrative quotations are, as we have said, well chosen, and are rendered into vigorous and idiomatic English. The un-Attic expression "to boss the job" would seem to require at least quotation marks to fence it from the trespass of American youth. We are strongly of the opinion that it would be a great gain to refer to their sources all citations from the Greek except ordinary phrases and formulæ. The sort of student for whom the book is designed will certainly profit by an accuracy that leads him to consult authors for himself and to note the peculiarities of their diction. The indexes are prepared with great care and ingenuity; the quantity of doubtful vowels is everywhere marked, and substantives and adjectives are conveniently classified according to their gender and accent.

There are some points in the history of a dead language about which one would like to consult an intelligent ghost, and which can never be settled except by a message from the dead; in spite of this, men of real learning and ability will affect a sort of inspiration in such matters and deliver their oracles, undismayed by the refutation of their conclusions on questions of legitimate research. Prof. Hogue apologizes in his preface for "the constant recurrence of 'seems' and 'perhaps' in stating the facts in regard to usage." To our mind his candid suspense contrasts favorably with the "cock-sureness" which is a grace and a virtue only when joined with omniscience, and of which he exposes one or two examples. Our own criticisms and suggestions are offered with reference to future editions, and chiefly from the point of view of the teacher. They are, indeed, mostly based on the fact that the work is more complete than it professes to be, and performs decidedly more than the modest promise of its author. It is not merely an aid to the student in acquiring forms and a vocabulary, but an excellent handbook in the practice of prose composition, and an accurate guide to some of the niceties and elegant economies of Attic style.

RECENT MUSICAL LITERATURE.

The Story of Music. By W. J. Henderson. Longmans, Green & Co. Pp. 212.

Review of the New York Musical Season, 1888-1889. By H. E. Krehbiel. Novello, Ewer & Co. Pp. 221.

System of Harmony for Teacher and Pupil. By John A. Broekhoven. Novello, Ewer & Co. Pp. 118.

It is a somewhat remarkable fact that there are to-day four musical critics of the New York daily press who have written books. Mr. Henderson of the *Times* has just entered the list by writing a brief sketch of musical history. The *Times* for many years was eminently unfortunate in its choice of musical critics, but since the accession of Mr. Henderson it has become a helpful influence in the advancement of what is best and noblest in music. The same qualities of a clear and fluent literary style, fearless frankness, and incisive sarcasm which distinguish Mr. Henderson's criticisms are apparent in his 'Story of Music,' which is an attempt to describe the evolution of the art itself, omitting most of the biographic details and dates which usually take up so much space in histories of music without throwing any light on the subject.

The plan is an excellent one and has been well carried out. Of course in the case of some of the greatest composers a few biographic data were called for, but as a whole it is a history of music and not of musicians that Mr. Henderson has written. Even with these omissions, an attempt to compress the principal facts of his subject into 212 pages compelled him to ignore some important lines of development, but the highway of musical evolution is clearly pointed out. For obtaining a bird's-eye view of musical history in a few hours, and without great mental effort, we know of no work equal to the present, which is also enlivened by frequent references, in the early chapters, to modern events and questions. The author looks at his subject from the modern "advanced" point of view, with certain reservations. It is refreshing to read his remarks on Bach and Händel, so different from what one usually finds in English books: "Bach has been frequently compared with Händel, but this is folly. Händel was great in one department of his art. Bach was master in all. Händel has left us the 'Messiah' and 'Israel in Egypt,' together with a few other masterpieces, and thousands of pages for which the present age has no use. Bach wrote scarcely a measure that we can spare." No love is lost on the Italian opera composers, Verdi excepted. On p. 160 the famous mad scene in "Lucia" is analyzed to show "how far removed is the work of a charlatan like Donizetti from that of a true poet." For Verdi's last two operas great admiration is expressed, and the belief that they point to a new school of Italian opera, absorbing much of Wagner, but differing by giving more importance to vocal melody. The following is a just criticism: "There are passages in 'Faust,' unhappily too few, such as the death of *Valentine* and *Marguerite's* scene with *Mephistopheles* in the cathedral, which seem to me to come nearer to the ideal music-drama than anything outside of the best scenes in Wagner's works."

Wagner Mr. Henderson considers "the greatest musical genius who ever lived"; yet, oddly enough, he objects to what will some day be recognized as his chief claim to greatness—his constant and novel use of "harsh" dissonances and chromatic progressions, which do not "please the ear." Precisely the same objection was urged by Artusi at the beginning of the seventeenth century against the great reformer, Monteverde, for using unprepared sevenths and other "harsh" discords, and has been raised at every step subsequently made to enlarge the harmonic boundaries and the dramatic expressiveness of music. Besides, Mr. Henderson should remember that ears differ. Those of the full-blooded Wagnerite are highly delighted by the chromatic dissonant progressions in the *Norn* scene in the "Götterdämmerung" or the *Klingsor* episodes in "Parsifal." It is a question of accustico-æsthetic evolution, and we recommend Mr. Henderson to read an essay by Prof. Haeckel on the development of the sense-organs, in which this matter is discussed in a playful and sarcastic, yet suggestive manner.

Throughout the greater part of this volume the lecture tone prevails, which, however, does not seem out of place even when it modulates into exhortation, as on p. 68. There are some happy expressions scattered through the text, like this: "Music cannot definitely express emotion; but it can produce it." In view of the recent enormous successes of Wagner and Verdi, Mr. Henderson believes that the most important developments of music in the future will be in the domain of opera, and he consequently advises young composers, as a matter of business, to devote themselves to the opera rather than the symphony or the quartet.

Mr. Krehbiel's volume is the fourth of a series which, if continued on the same plan, will some day prove very useful to an historian of music in America. It is printed and bound in a manner which is a credit to the publishers; it gives the programme of every concert worth mentioning, with critical discussions of all novelties and other important productions; and its index, as usual, is very complete. An appendix gives a survey of the choral work done in the principal American cities during the past season, and another chapter contains a twenty-page summary of operatic history in New York, in which one cannot but be impressed by the remarkable list of great singers whom New Yorkers have heard again and again, which helps to account for the undeniable fact that operatic audiences in New York are more critical, or at least less easily pleased, than in any European city. The best articles in this volume are those on "Rheingold," the "Yeo-

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men of the Guards," a history of church music in New York, and the general retrospect, containing, among other things, the usual official statistics of the German opera season.

The three operas which brought the most money into the treasury were Wagner's "Rheingold," "Siegfried," and "Tannhäuser," followed by "Il Trovatore," "L'Africaine," and "Die Meistersinger"; and the highest average receipts were for Wagner's "Götterdämmerung," "Tannhäuser," and "Rheingold." "In the season, the seven works of Wagner brought into the exchequer of the Metropolitan Opera-house an average of $16,540.64 each, while the nine operas not composed by Wagner yielded an average of $10,421.84." These figures, better than all arguments, prove that Wagner continues to be the favorite of New York operagoers. Some curious details may be spelled out from these tables. Thus, although the average attendance on "Trovatore" was greater than on "Rheingold" nights, the average receipts were greater on "Rheingold" nights — thus proving that Wagner's opera appeals more to the well-to-do classes than Verdi's. The wisdom of reducing the price of seats is shown by the fact that $24,000 more were paid in than during the preceding season. Those of the stockholders and others who would like to put Italian in place of German opera can see the utter futility of such a plan made obvious on p. 165.

The Von Bülow recitals and concerts do not get quite as much notice as their importance seems to warrant, nor would the reader suspect from anything he can find in this 'Review' that Von Bülow's reading of a certain Beethoven symphony, in essential agreement with Herr Seidl's reading and Wagner's elucidations in his pamphlet "On Conducting," was a blow to Mr. Krehbiel, who had stoutly opposed these innovations; for Von Bülow is universally acknowledged to be the greatest living authority in the interpretation of Beethoven. But we have little doubt that Mr. Krehbiel will finally acquiesce in the new method.

Mr. Broekhoven is a teacher of Harmony and Composition at the Cincinnati College of Music, and his little treatise gives evidence, on every page, of the practical knowledge gained by the necessity of frequently explaining abstruse rules to young students. It is a misfortune that most manuals of harmony offer great impediments to students by their obscure definitions; Richter's, the most famous of all, sinning most in this respect. Mr. Broekhoven's definitions are not open to this objection, and pupils whose memories are weak will find their work facilitated by frequent references to preceding paragraphs. The exercises are abundant and useful. The use of the word septchords and other novel terms to avoid confusion is commendable. The theoretical side of Harmony, as developed in the works of Fétis, Hauptmann, Helmholtz, and Riemann, is ignored in this work; but as a practical guide to composition, and an elementary treatise on musical logic, it will be found very useful.

MEDIÆVAL HERESIES.

Beiträge zur Sektengeschichte des Mittelalters. Von Ign. v. Döllinger. Erster Theil: Geschichte der gnostisch-manichäischen Sekten. Zweiter Theil: Dokumente vornehmlich zur Geschichte der Valdesier und Katharer. 2 vols. 8vo. Munich. 1890.

It is pleasant to greet the veteran Dr. Döllinger again in the fields of research which he has made so completely his own. A life prolonged beyond the usual span allotted to man seems to find him as vigorous as ever, with undiminished ardor for his favorite studies, and undiminished zeal in conveying their results to other students. If these two portly volumes seem to tread closely upon the heels of the two which, in conjunction with Dr. Reusch, he issued a year ago on the 'Moralstreitigkeiten in der römisch-katholischen Kirche,' it is not to be inferred that they have been hastily composed, or that they indicate a fecundity too great for the due elaboration of their subject. The author informs us that the printing was commenced more than ten years ago, and has been carried on slowly. Indeed, one would imagine that the delay had been even greater, since documents extracted from the Bibliothèque Nationale are credited to the "*kaiserliche* Bibliothek in Paris," as though they might have been printed before the fall of the Second Empire.

The book consists of two portions essentially distinct. The first volume, of about 250 pages, presents a sketch of the sects which handed down the early Manichean doctrines in Europe nearly to the commencement of the Renaissance. Beginning with the Paulicians, the author traces the spread of their dualistic principles to Europe, where, under the names of Cathari, Albigenses, Patarins, etc., they formed the most formidable body of heretics with which the Church had to deal during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Interesting as is their external history—their sufferings so heroically endured, and the ruthless persecution which finally exterminated them—Dr. Döllinger pays little attention to it, and concerns himself almost exclusively with an examination into the beliefs of the various subdivisions of the sect. It is needless to say that this is based wholly upon a critical examination of the sources, and although there are occasionally points upon which opinions may differ, no one will call in question the fulness of learning of the author, his impartiality, his insight, or the admirable clearness which is so characteristic of all his productions.

The second volume reaches to nearly 750 pages, and is a contribution for which all students of mediæval thought may well be thankful. For many years Dr. Döllinger has employed his annual vacation in searching among the MSS. of the great collections not only of Munich, but of Paris, Vienna, Florence, Rome, and other places, for all documents that bore upon the heretical developments of the middle ages, and these he has now freely rendered accessible to all, in place of doling them out, one by one, as most scholars would have done, and rendering each the basis of a voluminous essay.

The subjects are not confined, as in the first volume, to the Cathari, but embrace all the sectaries—the Waldenses, the Spiritual Franciscans and Fraticelli, the Beghards, or Brethren of the Free Spirit, the Hussites, and some minor heresies and individual heretics. It is true that, in consequence of the prolonged delay in the press, a portion of the matter has meanwhile seen the light through the labors of other scholars, and Dr. Döllinger prefixes to his volume a table of the seventy-two documents of which it is composed, with indications of the places in which can be found those in the publication of which he has been anticipated; but as these are mostly printed in special periodicals or the transactions of learned societies, they are not easily accessible to the ordinary student. One, indeed, we have observed, of which the prior publication has escaped Dr. Döllinger—the heresy of Thomas Scot of Lisbon (p. 615), which has already appeared in Menendez y Pelayo's 'Heterodoxos Españoles,' i., 782, from a Venetian MS., while Dr. Döllinger's is from Paris.

Many of these documents shed new light on obscure points of the history of heresy and persecution, or on the manners and institutions of their periods. Thus a Penitential of the fourteenth century (pp. 621-624), from the Munich library, deplores the delivery of heretics by the Church to the secular arm to be burned. Apparently it was the custom after conviction to give them another chance of escape by the ordeal of red-hot iron; if they failed in this and refused to repent, then they could be put to death; but, on the whole, the writer thinks that if they did not attack the Church, it would be better to let them alone. He alludes to a curious custom in a certain place by which no one could receive Christian burial unless a friend would undergo the cold-water ordeal to prove that he died properly repentant, and he mentions the case of a knight who was slain in a tournament, at a time when all who took part in such encounters were excommunicated, and who was accordingly buried in unconsecrated ground. His friends appealed to the Pope, and proved that the hand of the corpse was raised to the face for the purpose of making the sign of the cross, thus showing that he had died repentant, and on this evidence the Pope permitted the transfer of the body to the cemetery. Still more quaint are the instructions to the confessor to inquire into the vocation of all penitents, for there are some pursuits which are wholly sinful, such as those of strumpets and players, and some, such as trade, which can scarce be followed without sin. There are, the writer tells us, three kinds of players. Some debase their bodies by filthy dances and gestures, or by nakedness, or by wearing horrible disguises, and these are infallibly damned unless they abandon the profession. Others wander around as jesters to the courts of magnates, telling foul stories and ridiculing the absent, and these likewise are damned. The third class are minstrels with musical instruments to please the people. Of these there are two varieties, for some of them frequent public dances and debauches and provoke licentiousness, and these too are to be damned.

No student of the mediæval period can afford to be without this rich and varied collection of material which Dr. Döllinger has thus placed within the reach of all. We hazard nothing in saying that no such contribution to its special department of history has been made since the labors of the Benedictines, a century and a-half ago.

FORD'S FRANKLIN BIBLIOGRAPHY.

Franklin Bibliography. A List of Books Written by or Relating to Benjamin Franklin. By Paul Leicester Ford. Brooklyn, N. Y. 1889. 8vo, pp. lxxiii, 467, printed on one side only.

Franklin, in his 'Autobiography,' forcibly shows how a man who "forms a good plan," and "makes the execution of that same plan his sole study and business," may powerfully benefit his fellow-men. One might almost believe that a purpose of following out this suggestion of Franklin's had been Mr. Ford's spur and inspiration in the very exceptional service he has been able to render, by supplying bibliographical helps such as the present one. This, we believe, is the seventh of his separately published bibliographies issued within as many years; and it is in many respects of ampler and more comprehensive scope than any of its predecessors—a fact which the title-page does not fully convey. Not even biblio-

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graphers have hitherto established any uniform usage in narrowly distinguishing between "a bibliography" and "the literature of a subject." Mr. Ford, in his 'Bibliotheca Hamiltoniana,' published three years ago, perhaps included all that each of these terms implies; but in this volume he by no means stops with what is comprised, first, under the head of works "written by," and second, "relating to" Franklin, but gives us also "Pseudonyms used by Franklin," "Writings wrongfully or doubtfully ascribed to Franklin," and several successive indexes, constructed with great ingenuity. If to these we add his very instructive introduction to the work, the whole constitutes what might perhaps be described as a bibliographical cyclopædia. Exclusive of the indexes, the entries, which are numbered consecutively, considerably exceed 1,000, 600 of these coming strictly under the heading "Books and pamphlets wholly or partly written by Franklin," but counting, of course, the successive editions of a given work. Thus, Mr. Ford gives 145 editions of the 'Way to Wealth,' perhaps the most conspicuous instance of an English work which has attained the polyglot form, unless we except some of Cooper's tales and 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.'

Mr. Ford very properly devotes a portion of his "Introduction" to showing where the most considerable collections of Franklin literature are now to be found, citing in this connection Mr. Winsor's claim, in justifying the beginning of the invaluable collection now in the Boston Public Library, "'that Franklin is to Boston' as Shakspere is to England." He also enumerates the efforts of his own predecessors in the work of constructing Franklin catalogues or bibliographies, including Sabin, Stevens, Swift, and others. Of Mr. Lindsay Swift's 'Catalogue of Works relating to Benjamin Franklin in the Boston Public Library,' etc., published by that library in 1883, he remarks: "Had I been aware of its existence before I began my work, the present list would never have been started." Nevertheless, it is decidedly worth while that he should have carried his own list through, since, from the necessary limitations of Mr. Swift's catalogue, it falls far short of that degree of completeness possible to Mr. Ford's work. To take a specific instance, Swift enumerates only thirty-two editions of the 'Way to Wealth,' as compared with Ford's one hundred and forty-five. "Completeness," however, it is gratifying to find Mr. Ford recognizing as at the best but a question of comparative degree. Indeed, he expressly picks this flaw in the title-page of Mr. Bigelow's recently published edition of Franklin's Works, namely, that he has styled it "The *Complete* Works." "The writings of Franklin," Mr. Ford maintains, "will never be complete," and he plainly looks forward to the gathering in the future of still other of "his known or recognizable pamphlets and contributions to periodicals."

No portion of this volume, perhaps, has a greater interest, and certainly few portions have more value, than the department devoted to "Writings wrongfully or doubtfully ascribed to Franklin." The eighteen titles here noted include some about which the general agreement of bibliographers has long settled itself, while in other cases our author renders noteworthy service by unravelling errors of authorship which have been perpetuated by so careful writers as Sparks, Sabin, Stevens, Swift, and others. Mr. Ford enters as "erroneous" the attributing to Franklin of the volume, 'Philosophical Essays,' Edinburgh, 1768, but does not suggest the true author. This work, though anonymous, was doubtless written by James Balfour of Edinburgh. Mr. Ford's division devoted to "Works relating to, written to, or dedicated to Franklin," comprises two hundred and twelve entries. While he nowhere claims absolute completeness for this enumeration, there are a few omissions which are somewhat surprising, among them the paper on "Benjamin Franklin" in Sainte-Beuve's 'English Portraits'; Part II. of the Messrs. Hale's 'Franklin in France' (Part I. is entered in full), and Mr. G. M. Towle's very interesting chapter on "Franklin, the Boston Boy," in the 'Memorial History of Boston,' vol. ii. An omission less to be missed is that of the various "lives of the signers" of the Declaration of Independence, by Lossing, C. A. Goodrich, N. Dwight, and others; Sanderson being the only one of this class cited. Twice Mr. Ford uses the word "classical" in a sense which will to most readers be an unexpected and unfamiliar one, namely, in his table of "contents," where he speaks of the "Reference list and *classical* index," and again at page 279. In both instances it means based on subject *classification*, rather than as almost invariably elsewhere. We find that Mr. Ford is not absolutely the first to make this innovation, Sir Henry Maine having used the word in this sense in 1883, in his 'Dissertations on Early Law and Custom'; yet this precedent, we must think, had better have been left unfollowed.

Westminster Abbey. By W. J. Loftie. With many illustrations by Herbert Railton. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co.

MR. LOFTIE'S 'Westminster Abbey' is one of those interesting and useful books which the pages of the *Portfolio* have yielded to the art-loving world. A picturesque and entertaining account of Westminster Abbey itself and its relations to London in early days is followed by an account of the Abbey as a long-established "show place" of great repute—a monument famous since long ago, though of course more for its sepulchral memorials and its historical associations than for its architecture, which, in the sixteenth century and later, was in little repute. The coronations which have been held beneath its vaults are next treated of, and finally, with the fifth chapter, the work settles down to an account of the interior of the building. It seems that there is here the accuracy of a guide-book and more than a guide-book's fulness of detail, combined with a certain freshness of style with which guide-books are not commonly supplied. If in the course of the whole work there is too little said about the rank of the building as a piece of Gothic architecture, we have not, perhaps, to complain of that, in view of the fact that the attempt to discriminate between the architecture of this building and that of other edifices of the same general character would be dry for the ordinary readers of the *Portfolio*, while the detailed account of the tombs, their effigies, inscriptions, decoration, heraldic bearings, and traditions, is something which all visitors, and all those persons who wish they were visitors, to Westminster Abbey, may unite in enjoying. The work is concluded with a chapter entitled "Walks in the Precincts," and this is really quite novel and worthy of minute attention.

As regards the illustrations, the case is not so clear. There are reproductions from Hollar which are, of course, of great interest. There are small, vignette-like drawings in the text, which are good in their way, and as expressive of the subject as a sketchy, so-called artistic rendering of architecture can be made. There are also photographic engravings printed with the text, which, although not of the first excellence, have in their trustworthiness a charm which the above-mentioned sketches have not. The unsatisfactory illustrations are the large etchings, the full-page prints with margins, pretentious in chiaro-oscuro and elaborate in detail, which contrive to give so false an impression of the interior that the book would be better without their presence. The main fault is that the scale is greatly exaggerated. The plate opposite page 28 would be tolerably truthful in this respect if it represented, not the narrow and far from lofty nave of Westminster Abbey, but the colossal span and reach of Milan or Cologne. A still more noticeable bit of falsification is in the plate opposite page 34, the Confessor's Chapel, where there is shown a very considerable walk from the tomb to the piers that support the roof, instead of the few steps that all persons familiar with the church know it to be. The chapter-house is expanded and spread away in the same fashion, and, in short, we have here a set of plates which would be somewhat overstrained in character if they represented a great cathedral like Bruges or Rheims instead of a church of the much smaller English dimensions. One large plate, and only one, seems to us a desirable possession, and that is the reproduction of Hollar's plate of Henry VII.'s shrine. Here there is something else than architectural interest: a square inch of Hollar is worth a great deal of Railton.

Illustrations of the Spires and Towers of the Mediæval Churches of England, preceded by Some Observations on the Architecture of the Middle Ages and its Spire Growth. By Charles Wickes, Architect. 3 vols. in one. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1889.

American Mansions and Cottages. Carl Pfeiffer, Architect. Parts I–V, folio. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1889.

THE publishers and booksellers who supply the constantly increasing demand for books necessary in the offices of architects and decorative designers have, during the past few years, introduced a plan which, at little cost to themselves and little cost to the buyer, puts into the hands of this latter much that is desirable; nor does it always involve a breach of that simple law which forbids you to appropriate your neighbor's goods, for there are many of these books which, in their original form, are so old that copyright has no longer to do with them. Thus, in the case before us, the outline drawings of English church towers, which fill three thin folio volumes, and cost £5 or £6, have been reproduced in facsimile by the heliotype process, and published in one volume at a lower price. The book is well known, and hardly needs any remark to introduce it to the student. The general accuracy of the drawings is admitted, and it must be said of them that they are unusually intelligible—that is, that the details are expressed in such way as to make them clearly understood. The projection and character of mouldings, the nature of carved string-courses, drip-mouldings, and the like, the amount of projection or of reveal, and all such essential points, which modern drawings of architecture are very apt to ignore or to slight, are unusually well expressed in these lithographs. A comparison of this reproduction with the original is certainly favorable to the former. The plates lend themselves to heliotype reproduction, and the result is satisfactory.

The five parts of Mr. Pfeiffer's book consist entirely of plates; and a small leaf, serving the

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purpose of a prospectus, is all the information obtainable concerning the plan and scope of the work. In this it is stated that Mr. Pfeiffer, a New York architect whose early death a short time ago caused general regret, had been employed in preparing a work on American domestic architecture, and that the executor of his estate has issued, through Messrs. Ticknor & Co., this selection from the drawings which had been prepared. It appears that all the designs offered are Mr. Pfeiffer's own, so that it is not so much a work on American house architecture as a résumé of this architect's practice, or at most of his ideas on this most important subject; that is, it is a book of material rather than of criticism, and of suggestion rather than of analysis. This, however, is equally true of the numerous books on house architecture which have appeared in this country. So far, we lack the book on house architecture in general, offering designs from many sources and the solution of the problem which would be furnished by many minds. The work before us consists of a number of separate schemes for houses, which are worked out in considerable detail. Thus, to take one of the houses at a venture, Design B fills thirteen plates, four giving the four elevations or geometrical projections of the four faces of the house, one giving plans and sections, and the rest being occupied with details of dormer-windows, chimney-tops, staircases, and the like. There is enough in these thirteen plates to allow of a house being built from these lithographs complete without the interposition of an architect or draughtsman, and no doubt some persons will put them to this use. The difficulty of proceeding in that way is, of course, that the moment a change, even a very slight one, is required, there is no longer any certainty in the use of the plates. No one can tell how much alteration throughout the large structure his single change of plan may involve; and with a more considerable change, the drawings become practically useless. As for the designs, they are generally of that somewhat too forcible character which marks so much recent American work; they have the somewhat exaggerated picturesqueness which has certainly served to give some novelty to our recent country houses, but which is very hard to keep within bounds, and leads too often to an oddity which reaches positive ugliness. There is no doubt, however, that young architects will find these convenient for suggestion, and would-be builders of country houses may study them to advantage without necessarily following them exactly, in building.

Martin Van Buren to the End of His Public Career. By George Bancroft. Harper & Bros. 1889.

It is a question for casuists whether contemporaneous obloquy can be outweighed by any amount of posthumous praise. Martin Van Buren was certainly despised and detested in his day, not only by his political enemies, but also by the general public. Could he have foreseen the judgment which some recent writers have passed upon him, the thought of a triumphant vindication in the eyes of posterity might well have glorified the tranquillity of his later years. Mr. John Fiske has paid him a respectful tribute; Mr. Shepard has constructed a most persuasive and elaborate apology for his public life; and now Mr. Bancroft comes forward with this enthusiastic and unqualified eulogy. We would not stir up strife, but we cannot help feeling that here is an exceptional opportunity for the presentation of some neglected aspects of the truth. It seems incredible that so pure a patriot and so eminent a statesman as our modern historians reveal to us, should have inspired the men of his own generation with complete lack of confidence, to speak mildly; and, before accepting this recent verdict, we would gladly hear counsel on the other side.

In one sense, it is true, Van Buren may be said to have anticipated his vindication, for the manuscript of this volume was submitted to him by Mr. Bancroft, and was pronounced by him to be, "as a record of facts relating to himself, authentic and true." It appears that Silas Wright suggested the writing of this sketch, and supplied very complete data for the purpose, but that, the public mind being "grievously agitated by party divisions on public affairs and on public men," its publication was postponed to a time more favorable to fairness of judgment. It seems strange that some part of the interval should not have been spent in completing the work, for that most interesting episode, Van Buren's candidacy on the Free-Soil ticket, is not so much as alluded to; indeed, the history closes with his term as President.

Compared with Mr. Shepard's Life of Van Buren in the "American Statesmen Series," this book is in almost every respect inferior. It has more quotations from Van Buren's writings and speeches, and contains a more detailed account of the earlier portion of his career; but the masterly comprehension of political history which distinguished Mr. Shepard's essay, is lacking. There is, in fact, little attempt at criticism; we have not noticed a judgment that was not favorable, and the general level of the book is not above that of a campaign biography. On this account its effect is weak. We listen with indifference to the statement that the vast progress in numberless directions made by the State of New York is due to the extension of the suffrage promoted by Van Buren, and with disgust to the information that, "by his especial direction, a public ordinance secured to the laborers on public works opportunity for due domestic enjoyment and repose." Such indiscriminate and even fulsome laudation defeats its own purpose, and we find ourselves wondering whether it may not be possible that the astute subject of this biography contrived its suppression until some period should have arrived "more favorable to a fairness of judgment on his character and career" than the lifetime of his contemporaries. Still, the book is worthy of an index—which it does not possess.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Mary. Alexia. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 75 cents.
Alphabetic Catalogue of the English Books in the Circulating Department of the Cleveland Public Library. Cleveland, Ohio.
Anderson, E. L. Modern Horsemanship. New ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Bamford, Mary E. Second Year of the Look-About Club. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Bell, Henry G. Mary Queen of Scots. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
Bigelow, J. Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Björnson, B. Arne, and the Fisher Lassie. Scribner & Welford. $1.40.
Black, R. Death No Bane: A New Translation of Cicero's First Tusculan Disputation. Scribner & Welford. $1.50.
Brine, Mary D. The Boys and Girls of Marble Dale. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Burnside, Helen M. Christmas Lights.—The Lord's Prayer. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
Cable, G. W. Strange True Stories of Louisiana. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.
Cable, G. W. The Silent South. New ed. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Chette, E. M. Tiny Toddlers. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
Crane, Walter. Flora's Feast: A Masque of Flowers. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Davies, T. A. Am I Jew or Gentile? E. H. Coffin. 25 cents.
Dr. E. G. F. Grisanowski. Mittellungen aus seinem Leben und seinen Briefen. Hanover: Schmorl & Von Seefeld.
Garnett, E. The Paradox Club. 2d ed. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Gilbert, Rev. G. H. The Poetry of Job. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Gilbert, W. S. Foggerty's Fairy, and Other Tales. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $1.50.
Golden Days and Silver Eves. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
Haggard, R. Allan's Wife. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Haigh, A. E. The Attic Theatre. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Harper's Young People for 1889. Harper & Bros.
Harrison, C. H. A Race with the Sun: A Sixteen Months' Tour. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Hauff, W. The Wine Ghosts of Bremen. White & Allen. $1.50.
Heimburg, W. Magdalen's Fortunes. Worthington Co.
Hoffmann, Prof. More Magic. George Routledge & Sons. $2.50.
Holst, Prof. H von. Constitutional and Political History of the United States: 1856–1859. Buchanan's Election—End of 35th Congress. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Horwitz, Carrie N. Swanhilde, and Other Fairy Tales. Adapted from the German. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Howells, W. D. A Hazard of New Fortunes. Harper & Bros.
Hubert, P. G., jr. Liberty and a Living. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
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Fine Arts.

THE BARYE EXHIBITION.

THE Committee of the Barye Monument Association which has had in charge the organization of the exhibition now open at the American Art Galleries, rightly thought that, along with the works of Barye himself, should be shown some of those of his contemporaries and friends; and in choosing among these the names of Géricault, Delacroix, Corot, Dupré, Decamps, Diaz, Troyon, Rousseau, Millet, and Daubigny, they have presented a group of great artists who stand for a complete, definite movement in modern art. This movement, begun by Géricault and Delacroix, the leaders in the famous revolt against classicism, has extended to every part of the western world where art flourishes, and in France has produced, in the painters of Barbizon and their immediate contemporaries, the most admirable school of painting of our times. The idea in this movement, the thing that gave it its impulse and carried it through to the splendid results we find in the works in the present exhibition, is Life, the essence of things as they are in nature; and the expression of it involved the complete release of art from the formulas of the Academy to which David adhered with such obstinacy, and which M. Ingres never quite lost sight of, though the traditions to which he most fondly clung proceeded from the pure source of the Renaissance. Courbet should be included in this movement for many reasons, and, indeed, no painter among the contemporaries of Barye has had more influence on the art of to-day; but Courbet's place is at the head of the Impressionists, with whom the poet-painters of the forest of Fontainebleau have little in common. Rude certainly belongs in it, and as a sculptor he stands with Houdon and Barye, if not above them, as the leaders in the wonderful school of sculpture in France to-day, the only school of sculpture that exists that is worthy of the name, and in which all that is best is the outcome of the same principle that formed the guiding-star of the Romanticists and their followers in painting. It has not been possible here, however, to do what was done in the great Retrospective Exhibition just closed in Paris—that is, to show the development of French art during the present century in its entirety; nor has that been the aim of the Committee. What it has attempted to do is to show what was achieved in one direction by a group of painters, more than a hundred of whose works have been brought together at this exhibition, and who without question have produced the most perfect art the century has yet seen. The fact that in this comparatively small collection all of these great artists are adequately represented, and that many of the works are among the finest and most celebrated they ever produced, makes the exhibition one of the greatest importance, while it surpasses in interest any similar exhibition ever held in New York.

Antoine Louis Barye, born at Paris on September 24, 1796, was two months younger than Corot, who was born on the 20th of July, while both died in the same year, 1875, in which year, too, Millet and Rousseau passed away. Troyon had then been dead ten years, and Decamps fifteen; Diaz died the next year, and Daubigny in 1878; Jules Dupré, the last survivor, died only a few weeks ago. Appreciation of Barye's works has grown side by side with that of the great painters he lived with, and in whatever private gallery we find a Millet or a Corot we are almost sure to find some of the wonderful bronzes of the great sculptor. Beyond such genuine appreciation, however, has grown up a sort of exaggerated Barye "cult," and the ordinary Barbedienne bronzes which are cherished by their owners as "originals" are numerous and to be found almost everywhere. At this exhibition, where the splendid collections of Mr. W. T. Walters and of the Corcoran Gallery, among others, are shown, it is possible to see some of the finest specimens in existence, and some pieces that are unique examples. Not even in Paris would it be possible to bring together a finer collection than this. Yet it must be said that they cannot be seen to the best advantage, for, owing to the considerable number of duplicate casts in the exhibition and the small amount of space given to the placing of the pieces, the gallery is far too crowded, and many of the best things can only be seen from one point of view. The dignity of the work suffers from such a jumble, and it would have been better to have had more room or fewer pieces; but this was, no doubt, a matter that the Committee could not control without a lack of graciousness which is always expected of committees for loan exhibitions. If only the large plaster cast of the "Lion and Serpent" had been placed in another room, it would have been an improvement, and this magnificent group could have been seen, too, better than it can be in its present place. One wants clear space to walk around it, to approach, and draw away. For it is truly magnificent, this wonderful lion with his mane erect and his terrible paw holding the great serpent pinned to the earth. It is magnificent in its mighty grandeur, and all the dignity of the lion is expressed in it, along with all his force, his graceful strength, and that marvellous beauty of bone and sinew of the cat. It is in his figures of the cat tribe, moreover, that Bayre is at his best. His human figures are rugged and powerful in their way—at least some of them are—but more are commonplace and clumsy; his horses are almost without exception artificial in the exaggerated curves of the neck and over-lightness of limb; the deer and the birds are truthful enough and beautiful enough, and the dogs are thoroughly characteristic—good sagacious creatures like the beagles, or elegant and graceful like the beautiful "Greyhound Reclining," No. 83. The bears are the very heavy, shaggy fellows they are in life, with rolling movement of the body and clumsy paw. The bulls are, if anything, even better than any of these, and there is in the "Elephant of Cochin China," No. 21 (seen again in larger form and a unique example in "Elephant Walking," No. 423), such a master work as would alone make a sculptor of animals famous.

The closest observation of movement, the most exact truth to nature in structural detail, the most extraordinary sympathy with animal life, and a wonderful sort of intuition are shown in these works. Yet in those where he has to do with the tigers, the lions, the panthers, and the jaguars Barye's work reveals a still greater quality, a tragic sort of quality that amazes and terrifies and charms. Look at the "Jaguar Devouring a Hare." Could powerful, subtle strength be better expressed than in the nervous body of the beast, firm as steel and yet undulating like a serpent, as he crouches with his jaws fixed in the vitals of his prey? In the "Lion Walking" and "Tiger Walking" what strength and grace are expressed, and with what grand simplicity! In the "Lioness of Algiers," No. 140, what an intense feeling for the beautiful forms of the most graceful animals is shown in this animal standing still with head raised intently looking at something! The "Panther Seizing a Stag," No. 24; the "Tiger Devouring a Gavial," No. 29; the "Ocelot Carrying a Heron," No. 292; the "Tiger Surprising an Antelope," No. 275; the "Lion Sitting," No. 138, and "Two Young Lions Wrestling," No. 135, are all of them full of this splendid suppleness of the cats that makes them the most beautiful and at the same time the most terrible of animals. It is in these works far more than in any of the others that Barye's wonderful talent is shown, and in the whole range of sculpture there is nothing to equal them and only one thing to be compared to them. Frémiet, in his famous group of a gorilla carrying off a woman, has concentrated in the rigid strength of the animal's right arm and the iron grip of the hand, a sort of force that is found in the greatest works of Barye. It is almost as powerful as that marvellous paw of the lion that holds the serpent.

The collection of Barye's works, which numbers 453 pieces in metal, wax, and plaster, includes also a number of water-color drawings and a few studies in oil. What is true of the sculpture is equally true of the pictures—those depicting the animals of the feline race are the best. "Tiger," No. 478, a study in oil, is one of the finest of these, and among the water-colors, "Tiger Playing," No. 504; "Tiger Rolling," No. 502; "Walking Lion," No. 493; "Tiger Asleep," No. 469, and "Serpent Crushing an Antelope," No. 466, are especially to be noted. Of interest also are three or four little landscape studies, one of which, "Study of Trees, Fontainebleau," No. 514, is a sober bit of brown and dull yellows, suggesting the tawny coats of the animals the great sculptor so wonderfully portrayed. In this gallery also is hung a portrait of Barye by Bonnat, whose admiration of Barye's work amounts to a passion. It stands as the accepted portrait of the sculptor, and shows the figure in three-quarter length, the head inclined slightly forward, with a broad brow, deep-set eyes with a penetrating gaze, and a mouth and chin of great firmness.

No name is so intimately connected with the Barbizon School as that of Jean François Millet. Passing over his early period when he painted semi-classical subjects, Millet's life-work was done at Barbizon, in the fields about that little village on the borders of the noble forest. There he lived his humble, quiet life,

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and there he painted those pictures of peasants' toil that have made his name the most famous one in the art of the century. It is especially interesting at this time, just after the undisputed triumph of his pictures "The Gleaners" and the "Peasant Leaning on His Hoe," at the Retrospective Exhibition in Paris, to find in the exhibition at the American Art Galleries what is without doubt the most complete collection of his works that has been brought together since the exhibition held in Paris after his death in 1875. Here are no less than twenty-two canvases, among which are some of his most important works and one that has been called his masterpiece. It is unnecessary to make comparisons between this exhibition and the one that has just closed in Paris, further than to say that there is here no single work by Millet that equals "The Gleaners." In that picture all that is best and greatest of his qualities is gathered. It is the one work of the great poet painter that leaves nothing unsaid he has said in other works, and yet says more. The most perfect of all his works technically, it is among the purest and most unaffected in sentiment. Nor is there here any picture that so admirably expresses what Millet strove to make us feel when he painted the "Peasant Leaning on his Hoe," a picture wherein all the homely poetry of the peasant's plodding labor is resumed, and we are impressed in looking at it with the true sentiment of the toiler's life, alone on the broad plain, with the freshly turned earth sinking beneath his feet, and only the birds for companions. There is such another picture as this, "The Sower," in Mr. Vanderbilt's gallery, and it is a pity that it could not have been brought here and placed among these other beautiful works of the master.

Of course, in the present exhibition, "The Angelus" first demands our notice. Much has been said and written about this noted work, and it has been rated, justly enough on some accounts, as one of the finest of Millet's pictures. The question to be settled before we can decide where it is to stand among his works, is one that depends on whether sentiment that is extraneous to the actual truth of the subject has any place in a picture; and if it has not, how much the presence of such extraneous sentiment in a work of art may interfere with our enjoyment of it. In this single picture of Millet's we find, instead of the true sentiment of peasant life as it is expressed in "The Gleaners," "The Peasant Leaning on His Hoe," "The Sower," "The Buckwheat - Threshers," "The Churner," "The Grafter," and "The Planters," a religious sentiment that is artificial and forced, because it does not exist in the peasant; and the fact that it is only in this one picture that there is a trace of this sort of extraneous sentiment makes us wish that Millet had depended in this instance on the simple poetry of the hour, as he has in other pictures, for the true sentiment of the subject, and that his sympathetic brush had interpreted nothing but the real feeling of the peasant workers at the close of day. Technically considered, the picture is an admirable one, and ranks very high. The only fault to be found with it, perhaps, is that in general aspect the canvas is somewhat prettified, notably in the sky, where, on the left side, where it grows lighter as the place where the sun is setting is approached, the tone is too clean and a little too high in value to harmonize with the rest of the picture. The figures are marvellously enveloped in atmosphere, and as fine in character, apart from their unusual attitudes, as any of the peasants Millet has painted, with one or two exceptions; and there is nothing in any of his pictures more tenderly and beautifully painted than the field in the foreground and the plain stretching away to the distant village, with its church-tower in silhouette against the evening sky.

To see the "Buckwheat-Threshers," No. 555, is to see one of Millet's very finest compositions. As such there is no one of his pictures that surpasses it, unless it be that great masterpiece "The Gleaners," and the "Buckwheat-Threshers" has many points in common with that picture. Like it, it is a scene in a harvest-field, and the women in the foreground in each picture have the same sinewy strength that is only not grace because it is not meant to be. The "Buckwheat-Threshers" is not carried to the same point of finish in execution, but it is much like the other picture in the suggestion of the color scheme. "The Churner," No. 601, is one of the finest single figures Millet has painted, and the picture is notable for the beautiful painting of the interior of the cottage, where the churner is seen at her work. "The Sower," No. 620, again, is another excellent single figure. It is a different composition from the one in the Vanderbilt collection, the figure, for one thing, being smaller in the landscape and differently placed on the canvas. "Breaking Flax," No. 527, though a small picture, contains one of the very finest of Millet's female figures. Indeed, there is nothing more admirable in the galleries than this woman in her blue and gray gown of coarse stuffs, with every line of her body expressing the action in her work. Here, too, is found that wonderful humanity that Millet put in his pictures. It is only a picture of a woman working with her back turned to us, yet how full of real beauty it is, and what a delightful little piece of quiet color! "After the Bath," No. 587, is to be noted as the only study of the nude by Millet in the exhibition, belonging as it does to the period of his work that precedes the life of Barbizon. It is an admirable little figure, robustly modelled, and fine in tone. The other smaller pictures, each of which has distinctive characteristics and particular merits, are "Sheep-Shearing," No. 551; "The Shepherd," No. 602; "Woman Making Lye," No. 564; "Sea View off Cherbourg," No. 552 (a curious little canvas, one of the rare ones in which Millet has attempted to depict a purely marine view); and "The Gleaners," No. 588. This last picture is that fine little piece of blonde color which formerly belonged in the Spencer collection. The figures are almost identical in pose with those in "The Gleaners" in Paris, and they are grouped in about the same relative positions, except that in the larger picture the woman on the right is placed further away from the two others.

There is no more beautiful, no more poetical picture by Millet than "The Sheepfold—Moonlight," No. 545. Even in this collection, where the landscapes form such an important part, and where some of the finest of all that these great artists have painted may be seen, it impresses by its purity and truth. Two other pictures which belong in the domain of pure landscape show that Millet was a master of art in this field. They are "Landscape in Auvergne," No. 619, and "November," No. 608. The first is a splendid technical achievement, a great piece of pure painting from a simple motive, and especially remarkable for fine color quality; the second is equally simple, and from its subject—a ploughed hillside under a gray November sky, with a flock of birds rising at the high horizon—has a peculiar charm in its very nakedness. A fine landscape effect, though a trifle forced, is found also in the "Potato Harvest," No. 534, and the figures in this picture belong in the same category as those in the "Buckwheat-Threshers." They are hardy peasants painted in their true character at their work in the fields, without affectation or the attribution of a sentiment that does not belong to them. "The Turkey Keeper," No. 614, an important work notable for its landscape again, and with a telling figure wrapped in a cloak, is a canvas with a fine color-scheme very frankly and hardily suggested. The "Sheep-Shearing," No. 563, with its shepherd in blue blouse at the gate in the barn-yard, the gray walls of the farm buildings, and the grayish-white and brown of the sheep in the pens forming the principal notes of the color-scheme, is another beautiful picture of the farmer's life, and it is distinguished by a fine general tone of quiet gray that is especially delightful. In the "End of the Village—Gréville," No. 553, we find a remarkable Millet that is rather odd in composition and seems to be without interest at first glance, but which is nevertheless one of the best of the pictures here. Nothing could be more truthful than the effect of the gentle sunlight falling on the road and the wall at its edge where the cliff descends to the sea; and in the broad expanse of sea and sky beyond there is infinite charm.

Lastly, to complete this list of works wherein every side of Millet's temperament may be seen and studied, there are three pictures: "Waiting—Blind Tobit and his Wife," No. 573; "The Grafter," No. 628; and "The Planters," No. 554. "The Planters" closely resembles "The Angelus" in technical treatment, and though the time of day is different, there is a striking similarity in the color-schemes of the two pictures. In "The Planters," also, as in "The Angelus," there are two figures—a man and a woman—at work in the fields. "Waiting" is one of the most widely known of Millet's works, and it has been very highly ranked, but it cannot be said that it is one of the very best of his works, especially when it is seen in its present company. In so far as the sentiment of the subject is concerned, that is well suggested in the attitude of the blind man groping his way over the threshold of the cottage, and in the figure of his wife holding her hand above her eyes while she scans the horizon whither the road leads over the hilly ground to the west. But there is too much indifferent execution in the picture to give it a place among the best work of a man who at other times painted so perfectly, unless we are to throw everything aside when a canvas by Millet is in question, and say that everything he has done is well done. Still, there is a great deal of beauty in the picture, and it is not hard to explain how it has come by its high reputation. The things that are most easily appreciated in Millet's art are not always those which are of most value, and in this composition there was a story to tell, and its meaning is plain without the tablet on the frame that tells us the blind man and his wife are awaiting the arrival of their son. "The Grafters" is one of the best of Millet's works. Here is simplicity in subject and in painting. Here the figures of the man and of his wife, holding her child in her arms, are plain human beings seen in the garden of their humble homes and thinking of nothing beyond the life that surrounds them and the tasks they have to do. There is no more than that to say in the picture, but that is enough. Millet has said it quietly, soberly, and with his great art that dignifies the smallest and the humblest things, and this is the sort of pictures that have made of Millet the poet-painter his contemporaries knew and loved.

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